

**MAJOR FACTORS THAT AFFECT FEMALE TEACHERS'
PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL LEADERSHIP: THE CASE OF
PUBLIC PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN JIMMA TOWN**

BY

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JIMMA UNIVERSITY

**INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION AND PROFESSIONAL
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**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND
MANAGEMENT**

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that the thesis entitled Major Factors that Affect Female Teachers' Participation in School Leadership the Case of Public Primary Schools in Jimma Town is my own work and that the sources I have used are indicated and acknowledged in the references.

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This is to certify that the thesis prepared by **Lemessa Gobena** entitled: **Major Factors that Affect Female Teachers' Participation in School Leadership: The Case of Public Primary Schools in Jimma Town** and submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Master of Arts (Educational Leadership) complies with the regulation of the university and meets the accepted standards with to originality and quality.

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to assess the major factors that affect female teachers' participation in primary school leadership in Jimma Town. With this, an attempt was made to forward possible solutions for this problems. To conduct this study, descriptive survey method was employed. The participants of this study were 104 teachers selected by using simple random sampling techniques. Out of this, female teachers constitute 53 whereas the remaining 51 are male teachers. The 6 school principals, 5 Town Education Officials, and 4 Women and children affairs office holder were also involved in the study. The data were collected by using questionnaire, interview and document analysis. Both quantitative and qualitative data analysis were employed in order to reach at results. The findings of the study revealed; higher officials make gender bias while selecting school leader; lack of special support to females to win competition for leadership position in the education system of the town; they were strong in making decision; females are less participated as both heads and deputy head teachers: females have capability to lead primary school; men consider women as their equal counterparts; females assume that they will not be successful in leading school; females do not have plan and set their promotion goals to be school leader. Some of the challenges which could hinder women representation in educational leadership were for instance, pressure of home responsibilities, men dominance of management position, unclear promotion procedures. In the finding, the participants of the study also justified the following as the possible solution for the factors that affect women representation in leadership. These are providing training for women(Mentoring), gender awareness campaign, gender fairness in school leadership position, fighting traditions that hinder the progress of women, ,discourage societal discrimination, change family traditional structure(societal support), sensitize society to accept women leadership, women should be self-confident women's self -motivation.

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

ACL- Applied Critical Leadership

CEDAW- Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women

CSA- Central Statistical Authority

ESDP- Education Sector Development Program

FCSC- Federal Civil Service Commission

FDRE- Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia

FWTA-Federation of Women Teachers' Associations

ILM-Internal Labor Market

ILO- International Labor Organization

JAT- Jimma Administrative Town

MOE- Ministry of Education

SEEL- Sex Equity in Educational Leadership.

SPSS- Statistical Package for Social Science

TEO- Town Education Officials

UNICEF- United Nations Children's Fund

UNWPP- United Nation World Population Perspective

WCA-Women and Children Affairs

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

There is a growing awareness, which realizes that if the people of the country are to be the agent of development, and then it is necessary to engage both male and female in conceiving new development models. Developmental organizations like schools highly require the participation of all citizens to bring sustainable development through Education. For educational management effectiveness managerial skills of women and men are very important (Meena, 1992). Surprisingly, some women are perceived as More democratic and participatory in decision-making that facilitates organization's goal achievements. Hemphill, Griffith's and Frederickson cited in (Shake shaft, 1989, p. 187). Women are more likely to use strategies that include long range planning and evaluating data in making decisions and thus have been rated as better planners. Hoyle and Morsin k. cited in (Shake shaft, 1989: p. 188), referring Schein, Genovese (1993, p.10) states the potential differences of men and women "The leadership style of women laws been linked with enhancing world's peace reducing corruption and improving opportunities for the downtrodden".

Different researchers identified the causes of women's' under representation and low participation in school leadership position (Mbilyi and Omar, 1996: xii) notes that:

"Unfavorable social and cultural environment, lack of necessary motivation and confidence, as well as lack women's participation in development and solidarity among women are constraints that affect their participation".

Female live in a male dominated world where gender power relations are clearly in favor of males. Half of (50%) the world population are women (UNWPP, 2008). They form the core of the family and house hold, work longer hours than men in nearly every country and do more of the total work than men and women contribute more to the development of their societies. Despite females' contribution to the development of a society and the country at large they did not enjoy the fruits of development equally as their male counterparts due to the multifaceted problem that they faced based on gender.

Particularly, the exclusion of female from workforce openly began in the days of industrial revolution of the 19th century when the factory employers tended to categorize females as capable of “females work” positions that exist in the relatively few occupations and ranked them among those with the lowest status and compensations (Gregory, 2000).

Universally, men had been running the leadership career in any organization. Holtkamp (2002) notes that “leadership roles have been hold by men”. Literatures also have recognized men as a leader and their leadership roles behaviors in war, hunting, business and government (Craig et al. 1996).

Men have dominated management and leadership positions in education. A recent study by Enomoto (2000) revealed that little has changed in this regard over the past few decades. The study reveals that, despite their large numbers in teaching and in school leadership preparations programmers, females remain under-represented at higher levels of administration (Enomoto, 2000, p. 375). Her study confirms earlier findings of Kearney and Ronning (1996: 15) which indicated that men with similar qualifications and experiences generally meet with greater career success and participate more fully in the management process than their female counterparts.

Similarly, research over the previous century has largely been male dominated thereby perpetuating the myth that management and leadership are essentially male phenomena (Enomoto, 2000: Tanton, 1994).

Females have been playing traditional role of home makers while males remaining a leader in every sphere of life (Craig et al. 1996, Gidesn, 2005). Because of this social attitude females have been reluctant to pursue educational administrative positions (Holtkanm, 2002).

However, the leadership roles that females play in school had drawn the attention of scholars to investigate their roles in school leadership and in more economically developed countries such as (Costa Rica, Hong Kong , Singapore ,the Philippines ,China, South Korea and some Islamic countries) ,there are high rate of females in primary ,secondary ,and higher education that precipitated females to take part in educational administrations (Handyman ,2000 and Sidney ,2005).

In China, it can be expected that more women will assume school leadership positions as China strives to modernize its educational and economic system in the twenty-first century although the process can be slow and gradual because of strong emphasis on male dominance in their

traditional culture. Similar feminizations trend have been documented in some educational system within developing countries (Handyman, 2000: Sidney, 2005).

In African societies, it is believed that men lead and women follow (Ngcong, 1993: Grant, 2005). In this context, leadership has carried the notion of masculinity and the belief that men make better leaders than women is still common today (Kiamba, 2006). Similarly, Hojgaard (2002) notes that societal conventions regarding gender and leadership traditionally excluded females and top leadership was viewed as a masculine domain.

This traditional perceptions of women as inferior to men also continue to prevail as many people invoke the preservation of African culture to justify the subordination of women. The division of labor for women and men resulted in discriminating women in the work place. Research finding in East Africa especially show that women's representation is mainly in positions like secretaries, office attendants and data entry clerks (Moes, 2005) and until recently, 95% of all secretaries, stenographers and typists were women. In management positions the number of women participation remains negligible, less than 10% and the factors that contribute to gender inequality is the fact that men and women perform different jobs in category of "men jobs" and "women jobs ". While women jobs are often associated with lower value in terms of skill requirements and are lower paid, "men jobs" are often considered as higher value and higher paid (Rely, 2005).

To this effect, in many organizations we find positions such as secretaries, typist and janitors being occupied by women whereas managerial positions that are better and are often entertained by men (Melzer, 1992). Women in Ethiopia are mainly limited to shoulder the hard and unpaid household responsibilities such as Child rearing and feeding the family, farming and taking care of domestic animals.

Unfortunately, both culture and religion played significant roles in limiting the positive roles that women could have played. They have been oppressed in many respects in their capacity as being women and lack of involvement in the male dominated socio-economic infrastructures and as member of oppressed class (MOWA, 2006). However, very few women may have succeeded in breaking up the male designed socio-economic hurdles, the history of those few who succeeded have become inspiring models.

The Federal civil service commission recent statistics revealed the fact that the overwhelming majority of women servants are concentrated in position such as cleaners and other lower paid jobs. Not only men and women have different jobs, but there are also different in the extent to which they are represented in the hierarchy of positions within jobs. Even in occupations dominated by women such as the health field. When the doctors and hospital heads are usually men while most nurse and support staff are women. Men usually occupy the more skilled responsible and better paid positions.

Similarly, in educational setting while women hold the teaching staff position, men dominates the highest position of educational leadership (MoE, 2008). Therefore, it is to be highlighted that due to low educational attainment, societal stereotypes institution barriers that hampers the upward movement of women within organizations, one could hardly find women holding a management and decision making positions. This would retrain many women from facing the challenge and exercise decision making role (Meron, 2003).

In Ethiopia, school administrators has been male dominated to this consequence the government has set a plan to increase the number of model female students and teachers in school as well as appointing those able women at leadership position (MoE, 2006). In line with this, some sectors has been seen in increased the proportion of female school leaders such as principals, vice-principals, unit leaders, department heads and clubs heads (MOE,2006).

For instance, in Harare region there were 13 primary school female teachers in the Principal position, as it is all dominated by male (www.wojde.org).

Similarly, Jimma town educational office report (2005 E.C) reveals that among 37 school principals and deputy principals, there are only 3 female principals and 5 deputy principals currently leading primary 2nd cycle schools. Thus, it is very crucial to assess factors that affect female teachers in the participation of primary school 2nd cycle leadership in the town.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Women's scarcity in managerial and decision making sphere is global phenomena. However, one obvious destination between developed and developing region lies on women access to education. In most countries where feminism has the most impact, women account for no more than 10% managers and 3% of company director and this issue has received the attention of

international organizations (OnSong ,2004). Several reports and research findings noted that there are women who have succeeded in their school leadership roles and initiated other women to be outstanding role models among teachers of adolescent girls that have contributed to the unpopularity of teacher as career choice. Sister Katherine, an example of feminist educational leadership has contributed a lot for advancing women in school leadership (Thayer-Bacon, B 2008).

In East Asia, the need for women in school leadership position is regarded as important issue to ensure sensitivity within school for the wellbeing of adolescent girls to enable girls beginning to consider career choices with role models to stimulate women to participant in decision making and to address issue of social justices by providing gender equality between adults within educational system (Johnson, 2001). Women hold 14 percent of school leadership position in Korea (Kiamba, 2005), 13 percent of Chinese leadership position and the majority of senior school management in Singapore.

In the African context, lack of female role model among teachers of adolescent girls may have contributed to the unpopularity of teaching as career choices for girls in the past (Coleman, 2001). Some African countries like Zambia have been implementing the policy of balancing leadership position in school following the rules of selection of school leadership in such a way that when there is a male school director, the deputy must be a female. Besides, when there is a female school director, the deputy must be male. This simple regulation has meant that school leadership is now less gender biased that balance leadership (MoE, 2006). In practice, however, it had been observed that they are underrepresented in the leadership positions within the education system (Education Sector Development Program (ESDP IV: 2010).

Among the developing countries, there is a considerable variation of female teacher's participation in primary school leadership. In African countries, especially in sub-Saharan Africa the gap is very wide. According to Kane (2004:39) current trends in sub-Saharan Africa reflect a predictable pattern previously emerging in some regions (under less difficult circumstances), a widening of gender gaps, as participation increase from a very low base could be a temporary phenomenon.

The Ethiopian government has endorsed a number of legal documents aimed at eliminating

discrimination against women. One such document is the Gender Equality which was put into effect in (United Nations, 2007). The government approved the National Plan of Action on Education for All, which aims at achieving gender equity in education by 2015 (Do, n. d.). The national goal of the Strategy is to: improve women's quality of material and spiritual life, as well as establishing the conditions necessary for women to enjoy their fundamental rights, and fully and equally participate in and benefit from all aspects of politics, economy, culture and social areas (United Nations, 2007).

One of the specific objectives of the strategy is the Ethiopian government's commitment to increase the number of women in leadership positions at all levels and in all sectors. This is the reason why I was initiated to carry out this research. This study will be help make these unseen forces explicit and explain some ways to break them down and thus widen the path for women's advancement.

As indicated in Jimma Town educational office report (2005 E.C), among 37 school principals and deputy principals, there are only 8 female principals and deputy principals, currently leading the primary 2nd cycle schools. But, the report indicates as a number of female staff in many primary 2nd cycle schools of Jimma Town do not lack the necessary skills and qualities.

Furthermore, the Jimma Town Educational office annual report (2005 E.C) reveals that among 97 teacher's involvement in department heads and unit leaders in primary schools 2nd cycle there are only 12 (12.3%) female teacher's in leadership position. The lesser number of women's in primary school 2nd cycle leadership in the town and the absence of research that has been conducted on factors that affect female teachers' participation in primary school 2nd cycle leadership initiated the researcher to conduct the study to investigate the factors that affect the participation of female teachers.

Thus, the study will be guided by the following basic research questions:

1. To what extent female teachers participate in primary schools 2nd cycle leadership position in the Jimma Town?
2. What major organizational and personal factors affect female teachers' participation in primary school 2nd cycle leadership position in Jimma Town?
3. To what extent female teachers aspire to participate in school leadership position in

primary schools 2nd cycle of Jimma Town?

4. What strategies are in place to promote female teachers participation to primary school 2nd cycle leadership position in Jimma Town?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1. General Objective

This study was to assess the extent of females' participation in school leadership and major factors that affect their participation in primary schools in Jimma town.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

With regard to the specific objectives, the research attempts:

- To assess the extent to which female teachers participate in primary school 2nd cycle leadership in Jimma Town.
- To identify the major organizational and personal factors that affects female teachers' participation in primary school 2nd cycle leadership in Jimma Town.
- To investigate the extent to which female teachers' aspires to participate in primary school 2nd cycle leadership position in Jimma Town.
- To identify what strategies are in place to promote female teachers' participation in primary leadership position in the Town.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The significance of this study has both theoretical and practical dimension. Theoretically, different stakeholders (TEO and WAE) will use the result of this study for creating awareness for understanding of the major factors that affect female teachers' participation in primary school 2nd cycle leadership role. To this effect, it serves as a spring board to the way adolescent girls follows their predecessors to critically see the fate of adolescent girls with the identification of the major factors that affect their participation in primary school 2nd cycle leadership as their career choices.

This means that young adolescent girls who desire to enhance their primary school 2nd cycle leadership following their few role models who have succeeded in breaking the old "Boys Networks" will strengthen their future participation in primary school leadership. Besides, the

result of the research will be used as secondary source for a researcher who will conduct similar research topic that is related to this study.

Practically, the town will be benefited from the research in such a way that adolescent girls and primary school female teachers' will develop good perception toward competing equally with their male counterparts in their engagement to primary schools 2nd cycle leadership. This does not mean that female teachers of any other educational institution will not be benefited from the research. Yes, indeed, the factors that hamper female teachers' participation in different level of administrative position are under similar phenomenon.

Female teachers, especially who are at teaching staff , unit leaders, club coordinator and at the position of department heads will have an initiation to oversee the major factors that affect their role in primary school 2nd cycle leadership and see the direction of their career development in school leadership. Moreover, although the ultimate significance of the study is primarily for female teachers who want to involve in primary school leadership position in the Town, male teachers will also be benefited from the research in such a way that female participation in school leadership position will precipitate with gender leadership balance with different gender leadership qualities. Hence, the researcher believed that, this study will have the following importance:

1. It may help to increase the participation of women's, children and youth in educational leadership.
2. This study may helps by identifying self limiting beliefs of female teachers to participate in primary school 2nd cycle leadership and the ideas that bring attitudinal change in the minds of females.
3. The study will provide the mechanisms of reducing de-motivating factors existing in the work environment of female teachers' participation, so that they could participate in primary school 2nd leadership.
4. It serves as a feed back for Jimma town education office in empowering and utilizing women's man power in educational leadership.
5. The study may help other researchers as stepping stone for those who want to undergo a research on similar areas.

1.5 Delimitation of the Study

In order to make the study more manageable and feasible the study was delimited extent of female teachers' participation in primary schools leadership and the major factors that affect their to participation. This could be made possible because school leadership is a broad term that encompasses leadership from lower level of educational institution to the leadership of higher educational institution.

To minimize the scope of the study, the researcher restricted to study the major factors that affect 14 primary school 2nd cycle female teachers' participation in the town. To this end, an attempt was made to study the major organizational and personal factors that affect female teachers' participation in primary school leadership of Jimma Administrative Town with respect to training opportunities for female teachers' (mentoring), gender awareness at varies level of the town, gender- balance in leadership position, discriminatory or non-discriminatory procedures for recruitment and appointment. Besides, an attempt was also be made to study traditional outlooks that hinder their progress to pursue leadership, the pressure of home responsibility and the perceptions that hinder their participation in primary school 2nd cycle leadership.

1.6 Limitation of the Study

Whatever research may be conducted, the researcher encounters a number of limitations in his study. For this study, the researcher encountered certain problems which are considered as a limitation of the study. Among other things some school principal, did not show willingness to give information and become half hearted to deliver right information. Although this resulted in wastage of time to organize fragmented information as the research demands quality work, the researcher solved the problem in designing several strategies. The researcher reacted with officials wherever the environment is conducive for the respondents. As far as the organization of the fragmented information is concerned, the researcher took the advice of senior researcher as an input to minimize limitations and effectively utilized time for the research.

1.7 Definition of Key Terms

Aspiration: ambition of an individual, in educational usage usually seen as academic, social, occupational, and concerned with performance, prestige and status. .

Discrimination: the concept of silencing down and isolation of people regardless of sex, Color, language, religion, culture.

Feminine: is relating to women/girl. A gender that refers chiefly but not exclusively female or to objects classified as female.

Masculine: is relating to men /boys, refers to chiefly males or to things classified as male.

Mentor: an effective tool that will allow others who are in school leadership and who aspire to obtain position to help one another.

Model: refers to one serving as an example to be imitate compared, refers to usually miniature representation of something.

Participation: the act of sharing in the activities of a group, the condition Share in common with others (followers or partner....etc).

Position: a position involving performance of major duties, managing or supervising duties or other employees.

Second cycle Primary School Leadership: the type of school leadership in 5-8 primary schools with influencing people to achieve the predetermined objectives and goals.

Socialization: process of learning roles and expected behavior in relation to one's family and society and developing satisfactory relationship other people.

Stereotype: convectional and over simplified conceptions, opinion or images which assume that some group of people will act in the some often formed because of cultural expectations.

1.8 Organization of the Study

This study was organized into around five chapters based on the study objectives. The first chapter deals with presenting the purpose of study, basic research questions, significance and Delimitation of the study. Chapter two reviews the available literature. The methodological approach and design of the study is discussed in chapter three. Chapter four provides the results and discussions of the study. Findings, Conclusions and recommendations make up the fifth chapter.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter of the study gives emphasis on relevant literature related to the factors that affect female teachers' participation to primary schools 2nd cycle leadership and an attempt were also made to define educational leadership.

2.1 Concepts of Educational Leadership

According to Tarnve (2000) educational leadership is the continuous work of mobilizing people to believe and behave in regard to shared vision that result to in high achievement for every child. It is the ability to support people in doing inquiry about the result of their works honestly, without the fear of blame and judgment. In other words educational leadership is primarily concerned with educational purpose of guiding and directing teaching and learning to improve educational outcomes for all students (Lloyd, 2009). Besides, educational leadership influences and manages pedagogical goals and visions undermining instructional program to promote teachers learning and development for students' improvement (Lloyd, 2009).

Tarnve in Esayas (2012) further argues educational leadership that enhances students' outcomes through the creation of an environment where learning permits the organizational culture, besides he states as:

"I believe that the core work of teachers in seeking to promote quality learning for all children that all management tasks serve that core work" (P.8)

However, the balance changed following World War II, as many men returned from the armed services and sought employment in the school settings. From that point on, females steadily lost ground in the pursuit of administrative positions. In the 1940s in the United States (and the results are similar for Canada) approximately 41 % of elementary principals were women; in the 1950s, 38%; in the 1960s, 22%. By 1980 the figure dropped to less than 20% (Paddock, as cited by Grady, 1992).

While representation by women in educational administration has made some gains since the low point in the 1980s, statistics developed a decade later reveal that Ella Flagg Young's prediction is far from reality. As one example, women constituted 64.2% of the teaching force in Alberta in 1995, but only 5% of superintendents, 25% of assistant superintendents, 26% of principals, and 36% of assistant or associate principals were female (Alberta Education, 1995).

2.1.1 Females and Leadership

Good school administration is more attuned to feminine than masculine modes of leadership behavior. Female attributes of nurturing, being sensitive, empathetic, intuitive, compromising, caring, cooperative, and accommodative are increasingly associated with effective administration. While these characteristics are innate and valuable, women possessing the qualities of a good leader still face higher attrition and slower career mobility particularly in educational administration (Porat, 1991). Data on equality of opportunity in educational administration reveals that gender, more than age, experience, background, or competence determines the role an individual will be assigned in education (Lane & Whitaker, 1990).

2.1.2 Women Leadership Behaviors

Aburdene and Naisbitt (1992) described in their book, *Megatrends for Women*, 25 behaviors that characterize women's leadership. The behaviors clustered in six central patterns were identified as behaviors that empower, restructure, teach, provide role models, encourage openness, and stimulate questioning. Gillet-Karam (1994), on the other hand, used four behaviors: (a) a vision behavior-in this category, women leaders would take appropriate risks to bring about change; (b) a people behavior-women leaders provide care and respect for individual differences; (c) influence behavior-women are acting collaboratively; values behavior in which women leaders spend time building trust and openness (Getskow, 1996). No matter how the leadership behaviors of women are delineated, the fact is that women do possess the capabilities and skills to be excellent educational administrators. Gross and Trask (1976) listed capabilities of women in leadership.

- Women principals have a greater knowledge of and concern for instructional supervision.
- Top managers and teachers preferred women over men.
- Students' academic performance and teachers' professional performance rated higher under women principals.
- Women were more effective administrators.
- Supervisors and teachers preferred the decision-making and problem-solving behaviors of women.
- Women leaders were more concerned with helping deviant pupils.
- Women leaders placed more importance on technical skills and organization responsibility of

teachers as a criterion for evaluation.

2.2 Conceptual Models on Women Participation in School Leadership

Over the past two decades, several interrelated conceptual models have been adapted from the social sciences and used to explain the underrepresentation of women in educational leadership. These models, the social model, organizational model, individual model and international model could be revealed one after the other.

2.2.1 Social Model

The social model looks for explanations neither in women as individuals nor in educational systems, but in society as a whole. Schmuck (1980) refers to this as the "social perspective" (p. 243) and Shake shaft (1989) as the "social structure of society as the root cause of inequities" (p. 83).

This model "assumes women and men have been taught to identify their roles and separate" and those institutional and societal practices reinforcing these differences account for the lack of women in leadership positions (Estler, 1975, p. 379). In this model there are different socialization patterns for young boys and girls that are institutionally reinforced well into adulthood.

As Schmuck explains, the folkways and norms of the society coincide with different socialization patterns and channel women and men into different areas of work, which are assigned differential pay and status (p. 244). The assumption of this model is that the absence of women in leadership positions is due to the different socialization patterns of men and women (Grady). This model suggests that in order for women to move into positions of administrative leadership, they must first deny societal norms and values.

2.2.2 Organizational Model

The second model, the organizational model, or to use Schmuck's (1980) terminology, the "organizational perspective," explains men's and women's differential career aspirations and achievements not as a function of different psychological predispositions but as an effect of the limited opportunities for women that accompany systemic gender bias (Burstyn & Tallerico, 1996).

It turns attention away from the individual to the educational system itself, with its complex of institutional structures, policies, and practices. According to this argument, women do not participate because men are given special treatment in both promotional and administrative

hiring practices that there are structural and systemic barriers that work against the participation of all candidates who are not White males. This model assumes that "people adjust their aspirations to that which is possible and that women in education do not aspire to leadership as a result of limited opportunity".

The model was supported by an examination of the number of years it took women to achieve the rank of principal or superintendent (Lyman & Seizer, as cited by Grady, 1992). Estler's analysis showed that almost the same number of female and male teachers held the credentials to become administrators. However, the median number of years in teaching before appointment to the elementary principal ship was 5 years for males and 15 years for females (Estler, 1975, pp. 363-385). This model helps us not only to identify overt discrimination, but also to reveal more subtle discriminatory practices.

2.2.3 Individual Model

The third model, the individual model, assumes people are promoted according to their ability that is the basis for promotion and that men occupy the most senior positions in educational administration because they hold the best qualifications. This model implies that men are more competent than women because men are chosen for administrative positions so often. In the literature, this model is also compared to Schmuck's, (1980) "individual perspective", Shaker's "internal barriers", Ortiz and Marshall's, (1988) "person-centered explanations".

Despite these multiple labels, all seek to explain the persistent and continuing gender segregation in the teaching profession from a psychological orientation. That is, they look to women themselves for "cause", exploring such things as personal traits, characteristics, abilities, or qualities. Individual attitudes such as motivation, self-image, confidence, and aspirations also fall into this area (Burstyn & Tellerico, 1996). However, as Schmuck (1980) explains, when the focus is on person-centered causation, individuals are "held responsible for their own problems, with the solutions to those problems found in terms of changing the defect or weakness in the individual" (p. 9).

This belief is often reflected in statements such as "they are not assertive enough"; "they don't want power"; "they lack self-confidence"; "they don't apply for the jobs". Although these

statements may be valid for some female, such emphasis on females' so-called internal barriers lends itself to what Shake shaft describes as "blame the victim! Perspective (1989, p. 82).

The assumption of this model is emphasizing a number of variables influencing women's aspiration and access to educational leadership encompassing international variables for instance, the existence of international agreement about gender equality, National variables for instance, government responses to international gender equality, standards in employment and women access to the work place, organizational variables for instances, opportunity to purchase.

2.2.4 International Model

Household child care support result in gender equality in educational leadership. However, gender equality in educational leadership will be low if the variables from international to personal level could not encourage women's aspirations to school and women's access to educational leadership. Therefore, based on the strength and weakness of the models the researcher's analytical frame work for the study is organizational model and the international (ground theory)model that considers female teachers underrepresentation in school leadership as a result of limited opportunity" (Estler,1975,p.379) and multiple factors as the root cause for women underrepresentation in educational leadership.

These four ways of conceptualizing the under-representation of women in educational leadership reflect longstanding debate over the causes and meanings of inequalities in the education profession. An assumption underlying each model is that continued gender asymmetries must be more thoroughly understood to be remedied (Tallerico& Burstyn, 1996).What follows in this study was a brief examination of some of the factors that affect female teachers' participation in educational leadership.

Table 1: Summary of the Four Major conceptual Models for Women Underrepresentation in Educational Leadership

| Gender Based Models | | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------|---|---|
| No | Model | Emphases | Cause |
| 1 | The Social Model | Cultural and social norms | Different socialization patterns for women and men |
| 2 | Organizational model | Educational system | The organizational structures and practices of education which discriminate against women |
| 3 | Individual | Psychological orientation | Women are looked to as the cause |
| 4 | International model | International agreement about gender equality | Influences women aspiration and access to educational leadership |

(Estler, 1975, Schmuck, 1980)

2.3 Factors that Affect Female Teachers' Participation to Educational Leadership

In this section, several research studies confirm with the factors that affect female teachers' participation in educational leadership. For instance, Gregory (2000) and Blackman (2000) female administrators in educational leadership are underrepresented as gender given that they make up the whole teaching profession. For their underrepresentation, they list several factors that are related to the Organizational, and individual factors.

2.3.1 Organizational Factors as Barriers for Female Teachers' Participation to Educational Leadership.

Since the mid 1980s, studies have continued to report that females believe that negative stereotypes of women by superintendents and school board members are a barrier. Reportedly,

some persistent stereotypical and inaccurate views held by gate-keepers about females are their perceived inability to discipline students, supervise other adults, criticize constructively, manage finances, and function in a political frame.

Young and McLeod (2001) stated, “many school board members, search consultants, search committee members, practicing administrators, and private citizens continue to believe old myths that have prevented women from becoming educational leaders in the past” (p. 494). Assumptions about appropriate activities relate to concerns about whether or not a woman can do the job. For example, the school board may lack confidence in a female superintendent’s competency to oversee the construction of a new building, and when she completes the task successfully the board is surprised. Logan (1999) also found that females were still perceived as lacking the ability to handle discipline at school. Karla et al. (2000) reported that school boards and other administrators believe that females are malleable. The authors described malleable personalities as referring to school board perception of women superintendents as easy to direct just because they are female. If women turn out not to be malleable, the reaction is much more negative for women than for men.

Most research studies conclude that the biggest barriers to career participation among females are beyond their personal control. The Glass Ceiling Commission indicts Organizational and structural barriers as the most predominant barriers toward females’ upward climb in the career ladder (Woody & Weiss, 1994).

Bergmann (1986) opined that Organizational structures especially job assignment are designed to prevent females from ascending to the top administrative level. Job assignment is considered to be the primary condition for career participation of females to participate to the leadership position in schools as organization. Organizational structure “steer away” females’ potential for upward mobility by confining them to work roles that are considered to be “Females’ occupation”. To this end, the quickest way to the top of management level is placement in functional areas or crucial job assignment that leads to the accomplishment of critical organizational tasks.

Females are there to teach the learners and men are there to run or manage the schools. The term teacher is associated with a female and the term principal with a man (Greyvenstein, 2000, p. 30).

Since men have traditionally dominated leadership positions in all spheres, it follows that research has been male-gendered (Enomoto, 2000, p. 377. In this way, organization research and theory became male-biased oriented to male ways of knowing (Calas and Smircich, as cited in Hoy and Miskel, 1996, p. 20). Acker (1989, p.36) further noted that the early work on teachers' careers either ignored gender differences or explained them in terms of females' deficiencies. Thus it is possible to see how the field of management itself could be seen as male gendered and imbued with the "culture of masculine" (Acker, 1989, p.36).

2.3.2 Factors Related to Working Conditions and Sex Discrimination

The components of administrative work, as well as the perceived and real male defined environments in which many females' administrators must work, shape females' perceptions of the desirability of administration. The perceptions that females hold of what leaders Gardiner and Tiggemann (1999) found that the job stress of females was higher than that of males when working in a predominantly or traditionally male environment. Skrla, Reyes, and Scheurich (2000) described organizational contexts in which males used intimidation and silence to discourage females. Intimidating tactics and behaviors of board and community members included name-calling, rumors, and overt lies. Additionally, male subordinates were intimidating, at times indicating directly that they did not want to work for a woman. Logan (1999) also supported this finding in a study of educational leadership.

Lange (1995) in his study revealed that females had been sexually harassed by a higher status male was represented in personal silence about gender issues while in the superintendence and the feelings for administrative positions because of their understanding of the definition of the job of the principal. They did not perceive this definition as flexible or open for social construction. Principals studied by Clemens (1989) and McGovern Robinett (2002) noted that supportive work environments were essential in choosing to become principals. Wynn's (2003) study of teachers with leadership skills determined that women chose to stay in the classroom, rather than move into administration, partly because of their negative perception of the job of the principal. They identified student discipline as one of the negative dimensions of the principal ship.

2.3.3 The Impact of Socialization and Sex Role Stereotyping on Females Participation in Educational Leadership.

The process of socialization and sex role stereotyping have been discussed by several researchers (Seiwha,1986:Adlerand Izraeli,1988:Jordan,1991:Adler,1991,Gipton and Slick, 1996:Pigford and Tonnson,1993 and Agenda 65, 2005),why people do not immediately relate women with leadership and women themselves under value their potential to be leadership.

The concept of socialization process and sex role stereotyping, the bias of male dominated culture and society as well as women's self-concepts and self images to leadership will be discussed.

2.3.3.1 What is socialization processes?

From the beginning of his /her birth, each person confronted with expectations for his/her, behavior as defined by the society in which he/she is expected to adapt and confirm to those behaviors that designated appropriate to their gender (Adler, 1991, p.31). Jordan (1991, p.31) defines these expectations and adoptions of behaviors by each sex as sex role stereotyping and socialization.

Studies reveal that sex differentiated treatment and socialization process begin at birth. Agenda 65(2005, p.49) justifies that we have learnt gendered ways of knowing and behaving from the time we were born. The socialization process starts at early stage by parents. Surprisingly, the interesting observation is that parents tend to view their female new born as being small, delicate and fragile at birth. The male by comparison is described as being more alert stringer, and better coordinated. Thus, this play a great role on the achievement of both sexes in their future life William cited in (Adler, 1991, p.4).

Seiwha (1986, p. 176) also notes that parents' influence has a significant impact on sex role particularly of girls. In the eyes of parents, the social expectation of females is less than that of males. The socialization process of a girl at home may interfere with her future achievement rather than in force it.

In addition, Pig ford and Thonson (1993, p.9) state that the socialization process of children at early stages as follow:

Children provided at their early stage different messages experience based solely up on their gender when parents alter magical words “it is a boy”, and “it is a girl”.

Hence, our habit has developed overtime through our socialization process in the community we grown in. We learnt the values, norms and practices of our community and these appear to be "objective", natural and God given. Moreover, it is recognized that in the majority of societies women are viewed as less equal to men as the result of socialization process Agenda Issues 65 (2005, p.47). (Adler, 1991, p.118) further states that in each society certain tasks are deemed suitable for men and women. Tasks associated with males usually have higher status and value than those associated with females.

What is surprising is that, in the socialization and sex-role stereotyping processes schools have a great share to determine females' future carrier and achievement. Shake shaft cited in (Gupton & Slick 1996: xxxiii) claims that treatment of females in the classrooms as well as in the contents of the textbooks and materials used in schools contribute a lot to women's feelings of inferiority and lowered aspiration to receive positions in leadership.

Seiwha (1986, p.9) realizes that, schools accommodate socialization and sex role stereotyping through systematic organization. The socialization employed in schools minimizes the innate intelligence and aptitude of children especially girls when schools most assuredly teach and reinforce behaviors considered to be gendered appropriate. For example, girls do tasks like dust wash, paintbrush and do housekeeping chores while boys collect money) run errands, and operate equipment (Pig ford &Thonnson, 1993, p.9).

At large societal desired behaviors, the temperaments between the two sexes formulate distinctive personalities for men and women bring stereotyped "masculinity" and "Femininity" in their personality and activities. Hence, males considered intellectual and performs the role of dominating. On the other hand, females are seen passive, docile, ignorant and ineffective. This socialization process oriented behavior makes females to obey men's dictation and follow the leadership of male (Seiwha, 1986,

p.43). The existence of role-prejudice, which is developed and adopted through socialization in every country, has therefore, limited men and women to certain roles and life patterns.

As Agenda 65 (2005, p.6) shows, women's access to leadership positions has been hindered and limited by the socialization process and sex-role stereotyping. Gupton and Slick (1996: xxix) also identify in their study the existence of continued sex role stereotyping as a major impediment to women aspiring to administration. Furthermore, women themselves believe that the socialization and sex role stereotyping are the major barriers and hinder them from entering into managerial activities (Adler, 1991). Even strong sex-role stereotyping reinforced by the socialization processes has resulted in frustration and confusion among professional and managerial women (Adler & Izraeli, 1988, p.68).

In general, absence of women from leadership activities and positions is a result of the interaction of sex-role stereotyping, socialization process and occupational sex-typing Atkinson cited in (Yalew, 1997, p. 17).

2.3.3.2 The Influence of Patriarchal Beliefs on Females Aspiration for Educational Leadership

Patriarchy has been defined as a system of social structures and practices in which males' dominant oppress and exploits females Walby cited in (Afshar & Barrientos, 1999, p. 166). In the same way, Dahlerup cited in Nussbaum, Glover (1995) notes the patriarchal oppression, and the mobilization of bias effectively silences women's demands to leadership. In addition, endocentric patriarchal ideology denies the women leaders and neglects their placement in ranking positions.

2.3.3.3 Cultural Norms and Practices

Culturally, the Ethiopian society is patriarchal. It portrays women as inferior to men and the division of labor is stereotypical. Women who do not perform domestic roles are viewed as deviants making it difficult to assert themselves when it comes to seeking positions outside the home. In addition, women carry out almost all the reproductive roles of the households as well as many of the productive roles. The average Ethiopian woman puts in 15-18 hours of work per

day, which has never been valued in economic terms (United Nations Children's Fund [UNICEF], 1998). Women also participate in community management roles, which is usually voluntary and unpaid. In many cases, this is used as one of the reasons to justify that women do not have the time to participate in leadership outside of the home. These and many more are obstacles that limit women from developing their leadership potentials and take full advantage of the positive enabling environment created by the national women policy.

Grady (1992) cites Lyman Speyer as saying that few women have been socialized to have a clear sense of a career track to develop their leadership skills. They have also been denied the support, opportunity, and experience given to men. The findings from Grady's study suggest that there remains a psychological barrier, a subconscious occupational ceiling that prevents women from actively pursuing success in the non-traditional roles of school administration. Thus, proportionately fewer women than men seek administrative positions, tending to disguise their ability and eliminate them from competition in a larger occupational sphere (Johnston, Yeakey & Moore, as cited by Grady, 1992).

Socialization and gender stereotyping have also been regarded as additional internal barriers faced by women. Mahoney (1993) cites Witaker and Lane as saying women are limited by social expectations, parental guidance and self aspiration. Men are more often socialized to persevere and seek professional success while women are socialized to nurture and support others as they assume the traditional role of mother and caretaker of the home.

An abundance of literature indicates that the socialization process of females perpetuates notions of the inferiority of the female gender. Mahoney also cites Slauenwhite and Skok who contend that women have been socialized not to pursue a higher education, since society tends to believe they do not require as high an education as men. They continue that textbooks, the nature of student-teacher interaction and the different treatment that girls receive in comparison to boys, are some of the things that condition a woman to be cooperative, nurturing and dependent. Women have typically been perceived as being weak, and generally not robust enough for the difficult, intensely political nature of educational administration. It is encouraging, if not ironic, to note that some of these very qualities once seen as deficiencies are now being espoused as qualities of effective administrators.

In addition to socialization, society seems to use a double standard in describing female characteristics. Men might be called absentminded, but women are scatterbrained; men might be described as intellectually curious, but women are nosy; men are planners, but women are schemers; men are sensitive, women are emotional; men are managerial but women are manipulative.

Faced with attitudes such as these, it is no wonder it has been difficult for women to break through the glass ceiling into higher educational administrative positions. It is of critical importance that women be allowed to nurture the strengths they have. Female principals cannot be clones of their male counterparts. It is time to look at the strengths of both and detuning how those strengths can help both men and women become the instructional leaders our schools so desperately need.

In many literatures, the reason given for not representing women as leaders has only to do with the fact that they were females. Women were not hired in many countries as managers because of custom that men do not want to take directions from women leaders' coffin and Edstrom cited in (shake shaft 1989, p.96). Shake shaft (1989, p.85) also states that, the societal and cultural barriers mainly by the beliefs of men affect the aspiration of females for leadership.

In light of this, andocentric belief gives less consideration and looks down women's work and their place in the society and in the home as well. Many researchers in (Nussbaum & Glover 1995, p.260) reveal that women access to paid work is constrained by both discrimination and sex segregation at the work place in the assumptions that women are naturally responsible for all or most of unpaid work of the household.

According to the study conducted in South Africa, the majority of the country believes that the person who can lead the school better is a male; they do not believe that a female can lead a school. Power in organization is associated mainly with men, based on a general cultural attitude that men make better decision-making and leadership roles (Agenda 65, 2005, p.47-48).

Negative attitudes of society including that of women themselves and competence hamper female's participation. Females unequally integrated into new administrative

mode because of the culturally exclusive practices and images arising from a new particularly persuasive and captive form of hegemonic masculinity (Black More & Kenway, 1993, p.31).

Furtherer more, different societies have different sayings that affect the perception and attitude of females to be leaders in different sectors. In many cases, the sayings reflected in proverbs show the weakness of women and their inappropriateness for leadership roles. For example, the proverbs in Turkana community those oppress women, stated by (Wallace, 1991) as follows:

- o The body that holds milk cannot hold intelligence
- o A woman's work is to be pretty, not to think about serious matters
- o You are so stupid you can even be misled by a women

Women respondents who participated in the study of Wallace (1991, p.270) replied that there was greater gender discrimination in their community. One of them states that:

Even the son we suffered for him grows up to look down on us; our problems will continue as our sons follow the examples of their fathers.

Similarly, in Ethiopia there are sayings, which create psychological repercussions on females and affect their aspiration. For instance in Amharic there is a proverb, which says,

"Ye mot mot set dagna ye honechilet"

This possibly translated in English to mean,

"A death of death comes when female becomes a judge."

In addition, in Afan Oromo a proverb directly degrades the leadership of female.

"Mootummaandubartiikarracufaattioolcha".

This possibly translated in English to mean,

"The management of women makes the gate to be closed for the whole day".

Organizational socialization is the process by which new leaders become integrated into the formal and informal norms, as well as the unspoken assumptions of a school or a district. Because traditional stereotypes cast women and minorities as socially incongruent as leaders, they face greater challenges becoming integrated into the organization (Hart, 1995) "Socialization and sex role stereotyping have been potent obstacles to increasing women's

participation in the management of schools” (Shake shaft, 1985, p. 127).

Braithwaite (1986) attributed women’s failure to advance to upper level leadership positions in schools to oversaturation with the “cultural message of female inferiority within white male systems” (p. 16). This marginalization results in females not only being expected to “behave like males,” but also on being judged on how “feminine” they are.

Furthermore, Hill and Ragland (1995) indicated that colleagues might say such things as “the male is firm, but the female is stub-born,” and school boards are more likely to negatively evaluate females superintendents who portray decisiveness, assertiveness, and directness (Bell, 1995). Hill and Ragland (1995) pointed out the perpetuation of gender bias in media images of females’ leaders in which they are scheming, gold digging, seducing their way to the top, devious, immoral, and running over everyone in their way. Negative examples of female are leaders in books, television, and movies also influence society’s expectations of appropriate female leader behavior.

Another form of sex stereotyping reported by Irby and Brown (1995) related to societal perceptions that females work on an emotional level. Langford (1995) indicated that it is perceived that because females are intuitive (akin to the emotional work response), they cannot be natural, logical decision makers.

Kamler and Shakeshaft (1999) supported these findings, pointing out the existence of the myth that “females are too emotional and can’t see things rationally and so that affects their decision making” (p. 56). Christ man (2003) indicated that there exists a societal climate of un expectation for females who hold administrative positions. Perhaps due to this “un expectation,” a more difficult socialization process into the profession occurs with females as opposed to males. Carr (1995), Reese (1993), and Christ man (2003) indicated one of the reasons for the difficult socialization process is male dominance of the profession. Studies of females found the double whammy of negative stereotypes, first about being female and then about ethnic background (Prescott-Hutchins, 2002; Trujillo-Ball, 2003).

2.3.4 Hiring Practices and Recruitment

Organizational hiring Practices at the Bottom Entry-level jobs are critical in establishing career trajectories in organizations because promotional ladders, where they exist, are connected to

specific points of entry into the organization (Stevenson, 1977). Job recruitment and hiring practices used by employers often result in females being placed in jobs that have short or nonexistent job ladders. This is an important barrier limiting females' participation beyond low-paying jobs. Such practices, in conjunction with the difficulty of changing career paths once employed in an organization, perpetuate the existence of female job ghettos that are low-paying and cut off from mobility channels (O'Farrell and Harlan, 1984; Roos and Reskin, 1984).

Stevenson (1977) theorizes that employers use recruitment and hiring methods that have worked well in the past because they help to avoid costly hires of unsatisfactory workers. Statistical discrimination, as this is formally called, is based on stereotypes about appropriate work roles for females and males, which the public, employers, and most females readily accept. It results from the use of inexpensive and expedient "screens," in place of more detailed information about individuals, to make recruitment and hiring decisions, and it is likely to reproduce the characteristics of the current work force in a given job (Stevenson, 1977).

Hiring practices in entry level jobs determine access to ladders. Complex organizations contain many subsystems of job ladders (pipelines) to which different rules and procedures apply (Oysterman, 1984). Employers typically recruit applicants for a specific job within a company. Just as in hiring decisions, recruitment strategies for entry-level non management and nonprofessional jobs rely on traditional sources that yield a homogeneous set of applicants. The military services, trade schools, and high school shop classes provide a steady supply of young men for skilled and semi-skilled blue-collar trades, but very few females (O'Farrell & Harlan, 1984). Similarly, vocational education programs and business colleges supply females to meet employers' demand for clerical workers (Giese, 1989; Vetter, 1989). Personal networks of friends and relatives are another common way that people find out about entry-level jobs (Granovetter, 1974). Females, minorities, and people of working class background, networking with people like themselves, hear about the least desirable entry-level jobs.

To common argument, posed as a counter explanation to institutional practices that channel females and minorities into dead-end jobs, is that they "choose" to work with people like themselves. In 1986, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission lost a major discrimination case against Sears, Roebuck and Company because the defense successfully argued that females chose low-paying clerk positions rather than higher-paying commission sales

jobs held by men (Cooper, 1986). This narrow definition of choice as individual preference, however, ignores the powerful historical forces and occupational socialization that influence females' job aspirations (Kessler-Harris, 1986).

Women (or minorities or any other group) seek jobs that they perceive they have a chance of getting (Palmer and Psalter-Roth, 1991; Harlan, 1989; Kessler-Harris, 1986; Canter, 1977). Because individuals make choices in the context of what they perceive as available opportunities, employers' administrative procedures for recruitment, hiring, and job assignment that support gender, racial, and class stereotypes about appropriate work roles contribute to job segregation in entry-level jobs.

Thus, "choice" is not the barrier to greater opportunity; instead, employers' acceptance, and indeed their exploitation, of uninformed choices is the barrier to future upward mobility. These decisions determine the ways that complex organizations structure works, creating barriers for females. Employers use administrative rules and procedures to regulate hiring, promotion, and wage systems in the "internal labor market"(ILM) of organizations (Oysterman, 1984; Doeringer and Piore, 1971). The ILM theory is useful in analyzing more formally and precisely the notion of the "pipeline" for career participation. Ideally, a job ladder that links steps in a logical progression of skill, knowledge, and experience acquired on the job characterizes an ILM. Formal rules govern who is eligible to move up the ladder and how promotion decisions are made.

The external barriers to career participation for females are pervasive. Grady cites Timpano (1992) as maintaining that sex discrimination is practiced through «filtering methods" that filter out qualified females. Timpano's filtering methods include: «Recruiting filters "limiting job opening announcements to "within the district" when few if any females are certified as administrators; "Application filters" downgrading an applicant for a top administrative position by suggesting that she apply for a lesser administrative or teaching position; «Selection criteria filters" applying dual selection criteria by allowing men to skip one or more rungs on the career ladder but requiring females to climb each step concerned about returning home alone late in the evenings from meetings?"; and lastly, "Selection decision filters" rejecting a females because she is aggressive, but hiring a man for the same reason. Research and statistics indicate that sexual

discrimination, whether covert or overt, does exist in hiring practices in educational administration (Grady, 1992).

Mahoney (1993) cites Christianson in pointing out that when such selection boards have to choose between a man and a woman, both equally competent, it is more likely the man will be chosen. If women are chosen it is usually for elementary principal ships in small rural areas or for primarily junior administrative ranks. Due to the lack of information on the topic of women in rural principal ships, it was difficult to find the answers to these intriguing questions. However, one article did shed some light on the topic by examining extant knowledge about the location and contexts of women's and men's superintendence's.

In addition to these «filters", women face selection criteria, overt discrimination, and dual-work role expectations (Cairns, 1975). Dopy and Sloan (1986) found lack of female role models, resistance from persons in the community, and lack of central office experience to be common external obstacles to women aspiring to superintendent status. Shapiro (1987) offers more insight into the topic by suggesting that low levels of encouragement for women to enter administrative posts, a limited number of role models, lack of networks and discriminatory hiring and promoting are important barriers to women seeking administrative placement in school systems. One of the external barriers that Continues to reinforce the status quo is the hiring practice that still tends to be highly subjective and directed at those who appear to fit into the "Old Boys" Network. This "Old Boy's Network" has been used to recruit, train and replace men in administration (Pig ford & Tonnsen, 1993). Women are not privy to these "locker room discussions" where these networks are developed and where informal decisions and important contacts are made. With this lack of networks, women often do not face the same kind of encouragement to apply for administrative posts. It has been said that men often act as "gatekeepers" to the profession, excluding women: Through all the stages of preparation- from encouraging teachers to seek administrative positions to final selection of administrative candidates- the chances are that a man will be preferred to a woman.

Researchers have also examined institutions of learning, and why participation for women in this realm of education may be limited. Watkins, Herrin, McDonald and winter (1998) points out that anti-nepotism policy are widespread in institutions of learning. These policies appear to be

inordinately discriminatory to wives, usually due to the fact that husbands are employed first, and many institutions forbid the hiring of any relative. In addition to discriminatory hiring practices, and lack of networks, the lack of role models has been cited as another affecting. Women do not have access to a large number of appropriate role models, and, as a result, women may not even give administrative posts consideration (Cooper Jackson, 2001).

As (Restine, 1993) noted, "Women's paths in administration are often unplanned and serendipitous". Having female role models would definitely help to encourage other young aspirants to follow suit. Coleman (1996) helps explain the barriers to women's career progress as constraints experienced through socially defined roles outside the work situation. The constraints considered in this section arise from the socially defined expectations that women will take responsibility for domestic matters including childcare.

For most women who might seek management responsibility in education, it is still likely that they are the partner who has most responsibility for domestic arrangements: The increase of women's activity rates in the labor market has not been paralleled by a substantial increase in the domestic work done by men. Over the last ten years, men's daily contribution to domestic activities has increased by only 4 minutes (Rous, as cited by Coleman, 1996).

The exclusion of women is self-perpetuating, despite active effort to change institutional practices (Schmuck, as cited by Coleman, 1994, p. 179). Schmuck, as cited by Coleman (1996) refers to the "gender overlay" of schools that subtly favors young male teachers. For example, male principals interact more with young male than young female teachers, and young men tend to be given more opportunities to serve on committees and, therefore, begin to "exhibit those qualities that will recommend them for further responsibility" (Coleman, 1994, p. 185). Coleman also observes that male teachers may also benefit more from an informal level of "mentoring" than their female equivalents. Male principals tend to sponsor male teachers. Additionally, many school boards and selection teams are male-dominated to differential rates of promotion on gender-typed job ladders, as well as difficulties.

2.3.5 Barriers to Promotion

Women experience barriers to participation that are related in "crossing over" to male-dominated ladders, or pipelines, that provide more promotion opportunities. Empirical analyses of private companies and government agencies have revealed a number of important characteristics of job

ladders (e.g., Fisher, 1991; DiPrete and Soule, 1988; Biebly and Baron, 1986; Harlan and O'Farrell, 1982; Peterson-Hardt and Perlman, 1979). Promotion rates and access to the means of acquiring new skills systematically differ according to where one is located in the organization. Certain career lines are blocked while others afford ample upward movement. The barriers that prevent women and minorities from moving off the "sticky floor" often arise because the jobs in which these groups are concentrated either lead nowhere or have very short lines of progression.

Discrimination against women, minorities, and working class people becomes institutional and systemic in large bureaucratic organizations, as opposed to intentional and personal, by organizing labor along job ladders in ways that segregate them according to the gender, race, and class of incumbents (Fisher, 1991; Hartmann, 1987; Biebly and Baron 1986; Canter, 1977; Stevenson, 1977).

The "Pipeline" and Traditional Women's Jobs Pipelines, or more formally job ladders, are central to the process of participation in organizations. Whether a particular job is located on a ladder as well as the characteristics of the job ladder it defines the built-in limitations on when, how high, and how quickly incumbents can advance. Thus, the extraordinarily high degree of sex segregation at the individual job title level within firms has critical ramifications for differences in the career advancement opportunities of women and men (Baron & Biebly, 1985). The adverse effects of sex segregation multiply during the course of women's work lives as they find their mobility chances constrained by gendered job ladders or the gendered absence of job ladders.

The single most important structural barrier that keeps women from participating in organizations is the lack of connection of low-paying jobs with the largest number of female incumbents to any job ladder in the organization. Oysterman (1984) developed the notion of the "secondary subsystem" to apply to jobs within firms that do not fit the ideal ILM model.

The secondary subsystem, which includes large numbers of clerical jobs, offers poor pay and a lack of career prospects in low-skilled jobs, much like the secondary sector of the economy. Because workers can gain access to clerical jobs from many points inside or outside the firm (Oysterman, 1984), upward mobility is rare, and job ladders are short or nonexistent.

Fisher's (1991) analysis system, one of the few attempts to measure the promotion characteristics of job ladders, finds that jobs employing the largest absolute number of women are much less likely to be located on job ladders.

Canter (1977) describes stark differences in the job mobility possibilities of managers and secretaries in a major corporation. She finds that people with high mobility prospects behave quite differently from those with low prospects within the organization. Mobility is the most important motivating force for managers. Managers define their success as movement upward, a change in title, a better salary, and more authority. In contrast, Canter indicates that secretaries have little hope of entering more prestigious, remunerative, or responsible positions except by accompanying a boss who is moving up. Similarly, Segura (1989) reports that China and Mexican immigrant women experienced blocked opportunity structures in organizations.

Segura (1989, p.47) finds that "promotions and pay increases in minority-female-dominated jobs hinged on a combination of factors, which included individual productivity, seniority, and a supervisory job opening a rare occurrence.

Relatively, the perceptions of lack of aspiration may also result when teachers fail to apply for leadership positions because their personal values are not aligned with those of the organization (Lacey, 2003). Scherer (1995) determined that women's failure to aspire to the superintendence might be a result of their experiences working with male superintendents, role models whose leadership behaviors may not be compatible with women's preferred ways of leading.

First, most job ladders are comprised of a series of sex-segregated jobs, and most ladders are male-dominated, rather than female-dominated or mixed gender. Second, female-typed ladders begin and end at lower grades in the organizational hierarchy. Third, female-typed ladders have a poorer ratio of entry-level to higher-level positions. All of this means that even women who are on job ladders are in positions at the bottom of organizations, and they are less likely to be promoted to mid- or higher-level jobs.

A barrier to women's participation beyond low-paying jobs in organizations is their location on female-typed job ladders. Fisher (1991) finds that, after controlling for salary grade level, the cumulative proportion of incumbents experiencing a promotion on female job ladders is significantly less than on male or mixed-gender ladders.

Moreover, men are more likely to acquire the smaller number of promotions that are available at mid- and higher levels in the agencies. Other studies, which report that women equal or surpass men in promotion rates, have examined only exempt jobs (Gerhardt & Milkovich, 1989), or have

not controlled for grade level or location on job ladders (Hartmann, 1987; Markham et al. 1985). Thus, they do not speak to the particular issues of women in traditionally female, low-level jobs. In contrast, Fisher includes job ladders and promotion rates throughout the entire organization and controls for grade level in his analysis.

Given the promotional disadvantage of being a female worker on a female-dominated job ladder, it would seem advantageous to move to a male-dominated ladder that would offer better opportunity.

Unfortunately, women who try to move internally through transfer or promotion to nontraditional jobs face a number of significant structural barriers. We give examples of three barriers involving restrictive eligibility requirements, seniority rights, and the lack of training and career development opportunities for women in traditional jobs.

Eligibility requirements for jobs at higher levels of organizational hierarchies systematically exclude from promotion consideration lower-level jobs in which women and minorities are concentrated. This barrier is of a different magnitude than bias in decisions about which individuals will be promoted because gender, race, and class become structural parameters of the promotion process, excluding whole categories of individuals. For example, the first step in the promotion system in New York State civil service is the establishment of eligibility criteria, which consist of a list of job titles whose incumbents are eligible to take promotion exams for a particular higher-level position. Steinberg, Haignere, and Chertos (1990) find that women and minorities are far short of being proportionately represented in the "feeder grades" for managerial jobs. The definition of eligible job titles--and not the examinations, the interests of candidates, or the rule of choosing from among top scorers--proved to be most important in excluding these groups from promotion into management.

Seniority systems, designed decades ago, often protect high-paying, non management jobs for white male incumbents (Kelley, 1982). Companies that define seniority-unit classifications narrowly (perhaps by department or by job ladder), rather than on a company-wide basis, drastically reduce the potential for women and minorities to move onto job ladders traditionally occupied by working-class white males. Workers in other parts of the company cannot move to another seniority unit without being penalized by losing their seniority rights for promotions, layoffs, "bumping," and transfers (Kelley, 1982).

The absence of a job posting system is also a barrier that keeps people from hearing about the availability of jobs outside their immediate work group (O'Farrell, 1982). Fouke's (1980) finds that the implementation of affirmative action programs pushed companies toward formalizing job posting and bidding procedures, in an effort to broaden opportunities for women and minorities. In doing so, however, managers reported that they increasingly relied on seniority to make promotion decisions. Once the promotion process became more open, managers needed to have "objective" criteria with which to justify their decisions.

2.4 Individual and Societal Factors as Barriers for Females participation to Educational Leadership.

Shake shaft (1989) refers to internal or psychological barriers as "those that can be overcome by individual change whereas external barriers require social and institutional change" (p. 82). Some of the internal barriers ascribed to women include the following: lack of confidence, motivation, and aspirations; deficiencies in credentials and experience; and Socialization and gender stereotyping. Each one of these will be reviewed in greater depth.

2.4.1 Poor Self-Image or Lack of Confidence

Different researchers (Adler and Israeli, 1988; Jordan et al, 1991; Pigford and Thomson, 1993; Obemeyer, 1995; Gupton and Slick, 1996) state the reasons why females do not succeed in ladder of leadership is that efficiency in self confidence, fear of success, lack of personal autonomy, lack of clear professional goal setting, fear of rejection and competition, and lack of aspiration.

As the result of their socialization process and sex role stereotyping, majority of women lack self-confidence to be school leadership (Pigford & Thomson, 1993, p.11). Self-confidence affects the way females are perceived as well as the ways they perceive themselves. The self-confidence has a substantial impact on individual chances for being perceived as a group emergent leader Andrews cited in (shake shaft, 1989:85). Similarly, by citing Maccoby and Jacklin (1991, p.15) reported that self-confidence is a key factor, which could create variation in achievement related tasks between the two sexes.

According to Lerner and Spanier cited in Yalew (1991: 15) reported by summarizing the assumption of others that discuss the self-concept and self-esteem of males which agitate them to strive to do high status tasks where assertiveness dominance, high level of competence and activity demanded. Whereas females are pressured to search those tasks that are labeled as low status and where interpersonal relationships are highly involved.

On the other hand, Shake shaft (1989:89) argues that lack of confidence; aspiration and lack of personal autonomy are something, which measured by male lenses of definitions. She pointed out that lack of aspiration or motivation of females resulted from the burden of family responsibilities lack of opportunities, and lack of conducive work environment for them (1989, p.84). In addition, she elaborates that females' lack of confidence as a product of lack of experience in the sphere of administration and it should also viewed then, as a product of a system that keeps women separated from experience that would help to develop confidence in the public sphere. Thus, which has often seen as a personal failing of women lack of self-confidence may be more accurately seen because of sex-structured society that generates a belief reinforced by the organizational system that prevents women from developing 'confidence in public sphere activities through male dominated world of professional administration.

The other problem of females to seek managerial position is fear of success, which jeopardizes the women personal lives. Working with high achievement women and men, she worries about the anticipation of negative consequence for example, social rejection, disapproval, not being liked and loss of femininity (Jordan et al: 1999:234). As Heilman cited in Yalew, (1997, p.14) states, it seems that women choose careers of low status even when there is the possibility of getting high status because of fear of success. In relation to this Bandura cited in (Yalew 1997, p.14) elaborates that a sense of competence develops by observing others' success or failure that we think as similar to ourselves. Then women who fail to get managerial position may develop fear of success.

Jordan et al, (1999, p.225) states the degree to which women minimize and negate

signs of their effectiveness, what they know and what can do. They minimize their intellectual worth and their inner ambitions and they work hard to hide their inabilities. Similarly, Wheeler cited in Passi and Akech (1995, p.19) elaborates the following:

Female tend to change their sex role identity to reflect male roles while they seek to involve in educational management.

In addition, many women underestimate their ability. Women themselves recognize that the world is masculine overall; those who fashioned it, ruled it and still dominate it today are men. As far as their perception they don't consider that they are responsible for it. Moreover study reveals (Owens, 1998, p. 140) women tended to anxiety than men when confronted with situations of achievements. The anticipation in the competitive achievement activity of women especially against men produces anticipation of certain negative consequence for instance the threat of social rejection, and loss of femininity.

Competition is a troublesome area for women compared to men. It is be competitive for women because, if she is openly competitive, for women because she frequently experiences herself as aggressive and distractive.

Furthermore, as study shows even women managers own career strategies and ambivalent attitude towards a "masculine" type career orientation characterized by competition for power, can be seen as an obstacle for their aspiration to leadership (Agenda Issues 65, 2005, p.91).

Finally, lack of clear professional goal setting frequently affects the aspiration of female to leadership positions. Many women have not carefully planned their ascent to the top management (Guyton & Slick, 1996: xxiii), In light of this (Addis, 2001, p.32) realizes that there is a strong correlation between women's lack of career advancement and their lower career goals. Females do not plan their upward movement. They pursue their options in unplanned manner, as simply opportunities emerged.

Low self-esteem, lack of confidence, motivation or aspiration is often reasons given for women's low representation in positions of educational leadership. There is some evidence to indicate that women lack confidence in applying for promotion and that, in contrast to their male colleagues, they only apply for jobs for which they are fully qualified (Shake shaft, 1989). Research reported by Shake shaft (1987, 1993) supports the perception that females tend to receive less constructive criticism than males in carrying out their work. As a result, it is suggested that they are less able to deal with negative comments, in effect taking them too personally and allowing their confidence to be unnecessarily damaged. Some would suggest that these psychological, internal or intrinsic barriers, however, are seldom more prevalent for women than for men, and it is not usually the woman's psyche at fault, but the social structure of society that is the root cause of the inequities (Shake shaft, 1989).

Women may be aspiring to leadership Positions, but systemic barriers can prevent them from acting upon these aspirations. Women being deficient in credentials and experience have often been cited as an influencing factor in females' underrepresentation in educational leadership, even though, time and again, research illustrates what a fallacy this is. In the past, women's lack of credentials may have been a factor. However, the number of women in graduate school implies an increase in confidence, motivation and credentials. More and more women are becoming better qualified for the job but, unfortunately, this is not necessarily securing them positions in the administrative field. Grady's (1992) article "Women and Educational Administration: Certified, But Not Employed", cites studies that indicate the number of women in graduate programs in educational administration approaches or exceeds the number of male graduate students.

However, other data reveal that a corresponding number of women do not hold administrative positions. In investigating why women with administration certification were not employed in an administrative position, Grady discovered in her study that a major impediment was women's unwillingness to apply for administrative positions. Further reasons cited were that they preferred their current positions and were not interested in administrative work. It appears that some well-qualified women have psychologically accepted a secondary role in their profession because they are concerned about their family or because of lack of confidence (Lange, as cited by Grady, 1992).

Women who aspire to become administrators are more likely to report lowered aspiration or lack of confidence than women who have become administrators. In studies of females aspiring to become administrators, Brown and Irby (1995) found a marked lack of self-confidence. On the other hand, 20 female elementary teachers who had been tapped for the principal ship but who didn't want to become administrators exhibited no signs of low self-esteem or lack of confidence according to Hewitt (1989). Although, Walker (1995) and Guyton (1998) both noted that female administrators rarely see themselves as experts, often expressing a lack of confidence about seeing themselves at the top, women superintendents studied by Lutz (1990) reported no internal barrier of poor self-image or lack of confidence. Grogan (1996) found the superintendent aspirants in her study to be very confident of their abilities and qualifications to lead School districts.

Similarly, Grogan and Brunner (2005a, b) report that 40% of women in senior central office positions feel competent to take on district leadership positions. Low self-esteem and lack of self-confidence may be different than leadership identity, which is the feeling of belonging to a group of leaders or to a specific level of leadership and of feeling significant within that circle (Brown & Irby, 1996). Lack of a leadership identity can lead to a feeling of isolation and the feeling of being an outsider (Christman, 2003). In their findings related to superintendents and aspiring superintendents, Walker (1995) and Scherr (1995) indicated that women lack a sense of themselves as leaders and perceive that they have further to go in developing this leadership identity than do men.

Perhaps it is this lack of leadership identity, rather than low self-esteem that also perpetuates the perception of women that they must get more information, more education, and more experience in the classroom prior to seeking an administrative position (Grogan & Brunner, 2005a, b; Young & McLeod, 2001). Or perhaps it is the reality that for a woman to be considered equal, she must be better prepared than the man with whom she is competing for a job.

2.4.2 Family and Home Responsibilities

It was frequently observed that extensive family responsibilities especially those involving marriage, childcare and household activities can affect females' career achievements (Fagenson, 1993, p.194). The traditional expectations of women's major

roles in life are those of wife, mother and homemakers. Women workers still tend more than men to bear the main burden of family responsibilities as well as paid and unpaid work; these double work burdens hampers their upward movement to management positions (Almaz, 1997).

Adler and Israeli (1983) states that societal expectations of women are greater interims-of family responsibilities; such as care for elderly of children, and husband are exclusively that of she has to participate fully in funeral/mourning 'e no one raises eyebrows if a male/ who is also a manager just stays an hour and leaves the mourning house or does not attend a funeral because of “meetings”.

They also note that, it is in the family realm that women pay the highest price. Today it is generally believed that marriage constitute an advantage for men who want to make career, but a real handicapped for women who have the same ambitions. Not only does marriage provide with logistic support /housework and emotional security/but also a grantee of stability and reliability in the eyes of contrast, women, once married and, especially with en considerably increase their domestic burden and multiply the obstacles to buildings career.

In relation to this family role, involvement can have a negative impact on achievement even when the women themselves may not choose to their career involvement based on long held stereotypes often assume that married women especially those with n will and should play a primary care taker role within their families (Fagenson,1993, p.196).

In addition to this (Fagenson,1993 , p.196) reports the extent of women subordinate career aspiration depend up on women’s own values , systems and priorities ,the degree of support provided by their husbands, the age based needs of their children , as well as the availability of organizational support in the form of flexible work schedules and assistance for children-care. Wife-hood and motherhood computed for resource (time and energy), which must be allocated between both the occupational and domestic roles. These multiple demands, thus inhabited the single mindedness continuous participation and commitment required for managerial success.

Furthermore, as Ruth states in (CRDA, 1997:22) multiple roles of women in the family, society, (traditional norms) and in the work place pose on a double or multiple burden which hinders their career progress and advancement to managerial positions. She also realizes that if the mother is a manager beside her managerial tasks she will be required to take care of her children, like taking them to hospital when they are ill, going market to purchase goods for them and staying at home when the caregiver leaves in order to satisfy families need. Accordingly, many woman managers no longer want to have to choose between career and family aspirations, the unequal sharing of family responsibilities continued to determine their career advancement (Almaz, 1997).

Thus, home and family responsibilities pose obstacles on women aspiration in administration in two possible ways. First, the woman not only must effectively juggle all of her tasks but she must also contend with the bulk of male educational executives who erroneously believe that not only she is unable to manage the balancing act but that it is inappropriate for her to attempt it. Second, the impact of home making roles is especially difficult for women's progress in the administrative areas (Shake shaft, 1989, p.13). In light of this (Nussbaum & Glover 1995, p.285 (females suffer from "sever time" since they are caring double burden of domestic and bread wining responsibilities.

Family and home responsibilities, place bound circumstances, moves with spouses, or misalignment of personal and organizational goals were early contributors to women's lack of administrative success, either because the demands of family on women aspirants restricted them or because those who hired believed that women would be hindered by family commitments. According to Shake shaft (1985), a direct impediment for females in attaining administrative positions is the reality based factor of family responsibility 1993 (Kamler& Shake Shaft, 1999) and the study documented family responsibilities as one reason why women teachers were not choosing to enter administration (Hewitt, 1989).

2.5. Overcoming the Factors that Affect Female Participation to Educational Leadership

To this point, this literature review has been focused quite extensively on both internal and external barriers that influence the representation of women in educational administration. Some of these barriers, while not completely removed, are beginning to crumble. A number of ways to overcome those barriers have been noted and one of these ways is for female aspirants to have a mentor.

Holt (1981) suggests that mentors, both male and female, may be the single most important factor in an administrator's career development. Mentor can suggest strategies for career mobility, open doors, initiate contact and make recommendations (p. 23). Despite the benefits of mentoring, research indicated that there seems to be a lack of available male or female mentors for women. When males do act as mentors, they tend to sponsor male, or someone who is most like them (Erich, as cited by Coleman, 1996).

One reason why mentoring may not be readily accessible to women may be that women don't "fit" into the comfort zone of male mentors (Fleming, 1991). Another reason may be that women are still the unknown quantity and are not perceived by some men as loyal or trustworthy and, therefore, may be seen as a great risk factor for the mentor. Fleming points out another problem of men choosing women as protégés is the sexual connotation that is attached to this relationship or the threat of actual sexual harassment in the form of sexual bribery.

In addition, research does indicate that male teachers may benefit more from an informal level of "mentoring" than their female equivalents. Clearly, mentoring when it does happen is one way to break down the barriers that women face, but it is not such a simple matter. Another way of overcoming barriers that is suggested in the literature is through networking. Networks provide a widening circle of personal and professional references that can assist in the promotion of women as candidates for positions. Networks can provide information through newsletters or word of mouth on systems that have job openings and contacts, offer advice on benefits of positions, salary, history and background of school boards (Rees, 1992).

Women need to actively seek out networks with men and other women to gain visibility, information, advice and receive moral support as they pursue their careers (Rees). Various American networks such as Sex Equity in Educational Leadership (SEEL) and Women in School

Administration (WISA) have been established. In Canada, the Federation of Women Teachers' Association (FWTA) provides different types of networking opportunities ranging from courses to prepare for the different leadership positions, to conferences, resource booklets, and a regular newsletter.

Additionally, The Canadian Teachers' Federation organizes an annual Status of Women conference. As Irby and Brown (1998) stated in their study of women's support organizations, "women need time to grow together professionally and to learn from other women". Schmuck as cited by Irby and Brown (1998) suggests that there is something special and celebratory for same sex members of all races and ethnic groups to come together. Perhaps one of the most compelling and powerful experiences that women have in the conferences and workshops for women is the camaraderie, the shared unspoken assumptions, and the revelation of one's experience which is understood Brown (1998, p.61).

Gaining academic credentials is another way for women to overcome barriers to moving up the administrative ladder. Evidence suggests that women are attending graduate school in record numbers. Preparing for the role of principal, especially in higher institution, has been identified as a key in breaking down the barriers facing women. Hopefully, the trend of increased enrollment in graduate programs by women will begin to have an effect on the serious under-representation of women in leadership. It is important to remember, however, that to date the results have not been that encouraging Holt (1981).

A more formal way to decrease the barriers facing women seeking advancement in educational administration is through employment equity programs or affirmative action initiatives. Employment equity programs involve the systematic monitoring of who holds what jobs so that areas of concern, such as fair and representative work force and equality of treatment and outcome, become public (Dotzler, 1993).

It is important to note that although hiring can be mandated by institutions, acceptance cannot. Promoting gender equity in the classroom is another way to help remove barriers for women. Girls are under-represented in compensatory educational programs and extracurricular programs. They are misrepresented and under-represented in co-curricular activities such as school club head, texts, department head, unit-leader, vice-principal and school Principal (Dotzler, 1993).

Moreover, educators must be cognizant of the "hidden curriculum" and the devastating effects that gender inequality in school can have on girls. Flynn and Chambers (1996) outline various steps to a bias-free classroom. Some of them include: set and enforce rules so boys do not monopolize attention and dominate all co-curricular activities.

2.6 Techniques Useful for Women participation to School Leadership

To obtain leadership positions in the 21st century, women can use some career- enhancing techniques. Techniques include availing themselves to mentors, utilizing sponsors, role models, and networking, which allows women a means for getting advice, moral support and contacts for information and providing constructive ways of dealing with frustration, sharing feelings about their work, and providing encouragement (Crampton& Mishra, 1999; Wesson, 1998). Morrison et al. (1992) suggested the following four "core components of success":

- **Be able.** Women should make sure that they know what the position entails. They should develop good speaking and writing skills plus any skill that will help compete against everyone else at a particular level. Never stop learning, whether it is formally, in a classroom or informally, on the job. Put in extra time and effort on every job.

- **Be seen as able.** No one should ever allow his/her abilities to be discouraged or ignored. Display competencies in jobs that are visible and valued, especially for jobs that form stepping-stones to the top.

- **Know what you want.** Be willing to balance, prioritize, sacrifice, and relax.

The first skill is taking the time to plan for a successful career path, which requires hard work, dedication, and long hours on the job. The second skill is to recognize the fact that competition does exist and women must learn to exhibit the appropriate skills and behaviors needed to compete. The third skill is to keep going and to develop confidence. In order to be recognized for the work well done, performing an exceptional job, doing a job important to the organization, becoming visible so others know who it was who succeeded are essential. The fourth skill is courage and determination to battle the male-dominated establishment. The fifth skill is demonstrating a commitment to work in order to stay ahead of the competition, and to learn to delegate effectively. A good delegator is able to (a) analyze the job, (b) decide what needs to be delegated, (c) plan the delegation, (d) select the person or persons to delegate to, (e) delegate, and (f) follow up on the delegated activity. The sixth skill that should be developed is to meet deadlines. Having the ability to complete tasks in a timely manner will improve others'

perceptions of one's performance during the evaluation process. The seventh and final skill is to develop and exercise the managerial role. The leader's aim is to gain respect; not love. In order to gain a leadership role, a female must act the role and utilize the power she has in that position (Crampton& Mishra, 1999; Morrison et al., 1992).

Psychologist, Tingley (1993) addressed in her book the issue of communication barriers concerning men and women. Tingley uses the term "gender flex" to refer to temporarily using communication behaviors typical of the other gender to increase potential for influence that means one considers a situation from someone else's point of view. Tingley suggested using the following six-step process for adapting to gender differences (see Table 4) (Caudron, 1995; Communication, 1994).

- Adopt a positive attitude toward differences.*** Realize that men and women do communicate differently and use this knowledge when communicating with men.

- Acknowledge differences.*** When this is done, women will be in the right frame of mind to communicate with the opposite sex.

- Assess differences without judging.*** Determine if these differences are content, style, or structure, before presuming someone is being inarticulate.

Example:

A. ***Content:*** Men and women prefer to talk about different things. Men favor sports, money, and business. Women prefer to talk about people, feelings, and relationships. There are, however, exceptions.

- ***Steps for Adapting to Gender Differences in Educational Leadership***

Step 1: Adopt a positive attitude toward differences.

Step 2: Acknowledge differences.

Step 3: Choose techniques for action or response.

Step 4: Renew positive attitudes toward differences.

Step 5: Generalize from the specific.

Step 6: Assess differences

B. ***Style***: Men want to resolve a problem; they view conversation as a competition. Women seek understanding; they want to support a conversation and use it to connect with another individual.

C. ***Structure***: Men tend to get to the point without using descriptive details. Women often are detailed, apologetic, and vague *Renew positive attitudes toward differences*. Women need to reinforce the willingness to communicate differently.

- ***Choose techniques for action or response***. After listening carefully and assessing differences, make adaptations to improve communication.

- ***Generalize from the specific***. If one gets a positive response after adapting, assess the technique chosen.

A leader with an emerging, inclusive style of leadership could provide an institution with new values grounded in cooperation, community, and relationships within the community (Chliwniak, 1997). Women leaders possess an inclusive style that is to improve the institutions. The educational system continues to be structured as a traditional home: men manage the schools, and women nurture the learners (Whitaker & Lane, 1990). If this is the perception that women continue to encounter, then the lack of equal representation in leadership is inevitable. Even today female leaders are still being tested in ways that men aren't. Men do not have to answer basic questions about their abilities or deal with much closer scrutiny as women (Women Gaining Ground in Academia, 1994).

Finally, there continues to be inequities in the workplace concerning women in leadership positions. Research has provided much needed information concerning the gender gap, but how can it be bridged? Will the 21st century really bring about a change? Will time erase the gender gap in leadership that is like a brick wall for so many women, probably not? Time will help, but

more is needed. Yes, we need to recognize that women leadership styles are different from men, but we all must embrace that difference and make room for it in the educational leadership arena. Women leaders and future leaders must not be intimidated by what society may consider as the norm, male leadership behaviors. Women can no longer remain on the side lines hoping for recognition for a job well done. Women must be adamant in spreading the word, sharing the research, and expecting to be treated equitably. The message that must be echoed is there are not just women leaders, but simply leaders-leaders who are willing to do effectively whatever the position entails.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

The purpose of the study was to assess the major factors that affect female teachers' participation in primary school second cycle leadership in Jimma town. The descriptive survey design was employed in the study. This design was selected because it is helpful to show situations as they currently exist (Gay, 2000). It is also assumed that this method is economical since it enables to describe the prevailing situations both quantitatively as well as qualitatively which eventually help draw valid general conclusion.

3.2 Source of data

The sources of data included both primary and secondary sources. With respect to primary sources, the researcher collected information from teachers, principals, town education office officials and town women and children affairs office head. On the other hand, the secondary sources were reports and documents in school and Jimma Town education office.

3.3 Study Population, Sample Size and Sampling Technique

The population of this study was 278 teachers from 14 2nd cycle primary schools. Out of this, 134 were male whereas 144 were female teachers. In addition to this there are 14 school principals, 23 school vice principals, 16 educational town officials and 11 women and children affairs office head.

In order to obtain reliable data for the study, 14 2nd cycle public primary schools are clustered in to four Cluster Resource Centers (CRCs). To select the sample schools from the four Cluster Resource Centers the stratified random sampling technique was employed. This method was employed on the assumption that the same stratum is as similar as possible in respect of the characteristic of interest with their neighbors. Then within each group, a simple random sampling (lottery method) technique was used to select the sample schools.

Thus, the researcher employed the random sampling techniques to select the primary schools of the town. Because of it is not simple to enrich all primary schools in terms of time and resources. Therefore, the researcher employed simple random technique to select the desired number of 2nd cycle primary schools that represents their town using lottery method. Even though some

primary schools were not be included, they have equal chance to be selected and the sampled schools were represent other schools and deliver valuable information that represent those primary schools that has lost the chance of being select. Based on this sampling technique 6 primary schools were selected from 14 primary 2nd cycle schools as the representative for the town.

To this end, 182(65.4 %) primary 2nd cycle teachers from 278 primary 2nd cycle teachers were included the sample schools by using the simple random sampling technique. To determine the total sample size of teachers drawn from the strata, the researchers used simple random sampling from mathematical formula of Krejcie and Morgan (1970) and the stratified formula of William (1977).

Accordingly, 6 principals, 5 educational officials and 4 women and children affairs were included in the sample by purposive sample technique.

Table 2: Summary of the Sample Size and Selected Cluster Primary Schools

| <i>No</i> | Name of Cluster (Strata) | <i>School (office)</i> | Population Size | | Sample Size | % | Sampling Technique | Instruments of Data Collection |
|-----------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------|----------|--------------------|----------|---------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| | And Types of Respondents | | | | | | | |
| 1 | <i>Hermata (teachers)</i> | <i>1. Setoyido primary school</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>F</i> | 19 | 54.2 | <i>Simple random</i> | <i>Questionnaire</i> |
| | | | 17 | 18 | | | | |
| | | <i>2. Mendera primary school</i> | 9 | 15 | 15 | 55.5 | <i>Simple random</i> | <i>Questionnaire</i> |
| 2 | <i>Mendera (teachers)</i> | <i>1. Hibret primary school</i> | 17 | 15 | 18 | 56.2 | <i>Simple random</i> | <i>Questionnaire</i> |
| 3 | <i>Jimma primary (teachers)</i> | <i>1. Hermata primary school</i> | 17 | 18 | 20 | 57.1 | <i>Simple random</i> | <i>Questionnaire</i> |
| | | <i>2. Kito primary school</i> | 9 | 12 | 12 | 57.1 | <i>Simple random</i> | <i>Questionnaire</i> |
| 4 | <i>Jiren No 2 (teachers)</i> | <i>1. Jiren No 2 primary school</i> | 17 | 18 | 20 | 57.1 | <i>Simple random</i> | <i>Questionnaire</i> |
| 5 | <i>School principals</i> | <i>6 schools</i> | 3 | 3 | 6 | 100 | <i>Purposive</i> | <i>Interview</i> |
| 6 | <i>Educational officials</i> | <i>Education office</i> | 11 | 5 | 5 | 31.2 | <i>Purposive</i> | <i>Interview</i> |
| 7 | <i>Women and Children Affairs</i> | <i>Women officials</i> | 4 | 7 | 4 | 36.3 | <i>Purposive</i> | <i>Interview</i> |

Mathematical Calculation for Determination of Sample Size for Teachers

$$n = \frac{NZ^2 pq}{(N-1)(e^2) + Z^2 pq}$$

$$(N-1)(e^2) + Z^2 pq$$

Where, n=sample size

N=population

e=margin error (0.05)

p=population proportion (0.5)

q=1-p=0.5

Z= level of confidence (1.96)

Sample Size of Teachers

$$n = \frac{182 \times (1.96)^2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5}{(182-1)(0.05)^2 + (1.96)^2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5} \approx 104$$

$$182 \times (0.5)^2 + (1.96)^2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5$$

Therefore, 104 teachers were as the sample from the total population of sample schools

3.4 Data Gathering Tools and Procedures

As indicated earlier, the objectives and basic questions of this study required the use of both quantitative and qualitative data. Therefore, different procedures were employed to gather the required data from the field. Various data collection instruments were developed and used in this study. These included questionnaires, interview and document review. These instruments were pre-tested at Maderessa and Jimma primary schools.

3.4.1 Questionnaire

To gather primary data for the study, questionnaire was developed based on review of the literatures. The questionnaire was constructed in English because they expected able to read and write in English language. The questionnaire consists of both open ended and close ended items. Close ended questions such as Likert or rating scale were used because they are suitable for large scale survey as they are quick for respondents to answer, they are easy to analyze using statistical techniques, and they enables comparison to be made across group. Open ended items are suited to allow a free response. It is also more appropriate to elicit sensitive information (Scmech & Lewin, 2005). In general, structured questionnaire was used to gather the required information about the extent of female teachers' participation in school leadership, Major organizational and personal factors, the extent of female teacher' aspired in school leadership and strategies used to in place female teachers in school leadership.

1. The first part of the questionnaire was designed to collect information on demographic characteristics of respondents, like sex, marital status, number of children, academic qualification, field of study and experience. The purpose of these variables were to provide some basic back ground information pertaining to some sample population with the assumption that it might have some kind of relationship with female teachers participation in school leadership.
2. The second part of questionnaire consists of 4 items and thought to elicit the extent of female teachers' participation in school leadership. Respondents were requested to indicate the extent of female teachers participation ranging from 1-5 (where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3= undecided, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree).
3. Part three focus on major organizational and personal factors that affect female teachers' participation in school leadership. Respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement

using a five point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 (where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=undecided, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree). Additionally, open-ended question items were also included. For this thirteen items were developed for respondents.

4. Part four part of the questionnaire the extent of female teachers aspires in school leadership were prepared that respondents were requested to select a response ranging from 1 to 5 (where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=undecided, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree). For this purpose, six items were developed for teacher respondents.

5. In the fifth part of the questionnaire, strategies in place to promote female teachers participation in school leadership were prepared that respondents were requested to select a response of 2 option (yes or no). For this purpose five items were developed for respondents.

3.4.2 Interviews

In addition to the questionnaire, a semi-structured interview was conducted with four Town Education officials (TEO), six School principals, and five Women and children affairs (WAC). Thus, interview guide (a written list of questions) nine items were prepared by the researcher (see Appendix-B).

Interview have been described by Cantrell (1993) as allowing the researcher to gather descriptive data in the subject's own words and to access the unobservable; to walk in the head, so to speak. She further described them as the backbone of qualitative research. Sherman and Webb (1988) said that in- depth interviews of the participants led meaning to their observed experiences. Interviews according to them permit researchers to verify, clarify or alter what they thought happened and the meanings participants attribute to a given situation to achieve a full understanding and to take into account the "lived" experiences of participants by seeing the situation through the eyes of the participants. Cohen and Manion (1994: 282) as cited in Irvine noted that in an interpersonal encounter people are more likely to disclose aspects of them than they would in a less human situation because the interviewer develops greater rapport with the participant.

3.4.3 Document Analysis

In addition to questionnaire and interview, the researcher was prepared check list to collect additional information about female teachers' participation in primary school 2nd cycle

leadership of Jimma town. In this case documents like: the past four years' quantitative data of female participation in school leadership, strategic plan of women recruitment, promotion and empowerment in their participation to primary school 2nd cycle leadership. This tool was used to gather data that is supposed to be relevant to the first and second basic research questions of the study. The first basic question inquires the extent to which female teacher to participate in school leadership and major organizational and personal factors that affect female teachers' participation in terms of securing primary school 2nd cycle leadership positions in the town. Thus, this requires the collection of statistical information from the archives, reports and other records of the Town Education Officials (TEO) and Schools.

Documents existed in schools and Town Educational officials were also analyzed to respond to the basic research questions especially designed that intended to guide the study.

3.5 Method of Data Analysis and Interpretation

The data collected through the aforementioned instruments were categorized and organized by theme according to their conceptual similarity. Both the quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed and then described or narrated based on the methods best suited to their nature. Accordingly,

Quantitative Data

1. Frequency and percentage distribution were used to analyze various characteristics of the sample population such as sex, marital status, number of children, academic qualification, field of study and experience.
2. Frequency, mean score, standard deviation and independent sample t-test was employed to see the statistical difference of the response of the two groups (male and female) respondents.

Qualitative Data

The data collected from the structured interview, the open ended questionnaires and document review were analyzed and interpreted qualitatively. The hand written notes and discussion during interview was transcribed and compiled in to themes. Finally, the overall course of the study was summarized, conclusion was drawn and an optimal solution was recommended based on possible findings.

3.6 Validity and Reliability Checks

Checking the validity and reliability of data collecting instruments before providing to the actual study subject was the core to assure the quality of the data (Yalew Endawake, 1998). To ensure validity instruments were developed under close guidance of the supervisor, intensive consultation of relevant literature and a pilot study carried out to pre- test the instruments. Accordingly, to make the data more valid and reliable and also to avoid ambiguity and unclear statements, the draft questionnaire was first examined with educational officials and with pilot-test on 60 male and female teachers out of the sampled school of Jimma and Madresa primary school. Based on the comments were given by the above respondents of the piloted school, some modification were made on the questionnaire to make it clear and precise for the main respondents so as to obtain the most reliable information. After the dispatched questionnaires returned, some items two, three and five regarding the extent of female teachers participation was modification of unclear questions were done.

Additionally, the reliability of the instrument was measured by using Cronbach alpha method with help of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 20. Based on the pilot, reliability coefficient (alpha) the average of the reliability result was found to be (0.79) and hence, reliable and hence, was reliable. That is the instrument was found to be reliable as statistical literature recommended a test result of 0.70-0.90 is reliable (Tavakol, 2011).

3.7 Ethical Consideration

Prior to data collection from study participants, the researcher was ensured the participants agreement to participate in the study. All potential study participants were informed about the procedures that were used in the study, the risks and benefits of participating in the study, and their right as study participants. During the data collection and any activities that matter to the research, the researcher was make positive interaction with respondent through permissions and approved. This was made possible by developing positive relationship with community leader and explaining the purpose of the research to them. Besides, the researcher was show respect for community and their values in general and females' respondents in particular.

Moreover, a piece of information (legal letter) presented on paper describing about the purpose of the research was shown for the participant and organization that needs to know about the detail information of the research.

CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This chapter deals with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data gathered from the sample population which include teachers, principal, town education officials and women and children affairs. The data that were obtained through questionnaires and interviews were analyzed and interpreted in line with the basic research questions raise so far. For this reason, the questionnaires were distributed to 104 teachers to be filled out of which 53 teachers were female. Out of these 104(100%) were properly filled and returned. Moreover, 6 school principals, 5 education officials and 4 women and children affairs head were interviewed.

Based on the responses obtained from the respondents, the analysis and interpretation of data was made. Thus, the respective quantitative data was analyzed quantitatively using percentage, mean score, standard deviation and independent T-test. On the other hand, the collected data through interview and open- ended questions were analyzed qualitatively. Triangulation was made to check the consistencies and variations of the result obtained.

The analyzed data were compiled and organized in a way that suits interpretation of the results in addressing the research questions. In this way 4 tables were constructed in categorizing the objectives of the study in thematic groups which in details deals with the responses of participants on the extent of female teachers' participation, major organizational and personal factors that affect female teachers' participation, aspiration of female teachers and strategies to promote female teachers participation in primary school second cycle leadership.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Understanding about the overview of the respondents characteristics was important for further analysis of their responses. Hence, attempts were made to describe the background of the respondents which directly or indirectly related to the objectives of the study. Accordingly, the general demographic characteristics of the respondents in sex, marital status and number of children, field of study, educational qualification and work experience were analyzed and discussed in terms of frequencies and percentage as follows.

Table 3: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

| No | Variables | Category | Total Respondents | | | | | | | | | |
|----|----------------|----------------|-------------------|------|-----------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-------|------|
| | | | Teacher | | Principal | | TEO | | WCA | | Total | |
| | | | Fr | % | Fr | % | fr | % | Fr | % | Fr | % |
| | Sex | Male | 51 | 49 | 3 | 50 | 3 | 60 | 1 | 25 | 58 | 48.7 |
| | | Female | 53 | 51 | 3 | 50 | 2 | 40 | 3 | 75 | 61 | 51.2 |
| | | Total | 104 | 100 | 6 | 100 | 5 | 100 | 4 | 100 | 119 | 100 |
| 2 | Marital status | Married | 90 | 86.5 | 6 | 100 | 5 | 100 | 4 | 100 | 105 | 88.2 |
| | | Unmarried | 14 | 13.5 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 14 | 11.7 |
| | | Total | 104 | 100 | 6 | 100 | 5 | 100 | 4 | 100 | 119 | 100 |
| 3 | No of children | No Child | 20 | 19.2 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 20 | 16.8 |
| | | 1-3 Children | 55 | 52.9 | 4 | 66.6 | 3 | 60 | 3 | 75 | 65 | 54.6 |
| | | Above 3 child. | 29 | 27.9 | 2 | 33.3 | 2 | 40 | 1 | 25 | 34 | 28.5 |
| | | Total | 104 | 100 | 6 | 100 | 5 | 100 | 4 | 100 | 119 | 100 |
| 4 | Qualification | Certificate | 7 | 6.7 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 7 | 5.8 |
| | | Diploma | 63 | 60.6 | 3 | 60.5 | - | - | 1 | 25 | 67 | 56.3 |
| | | Degree | 34 | 32.7 | 3 | 32.6 | 5 | 100 | 3 | 75 | 45 | 37.8 |
| | | Others | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| | | Total | 104 | 100 | 6 | 100 | 5 | 100 | 4 | 100 | 119 | 100 |
| 5 | Field of study | Natural | 36 | 34.6 | - | - | 1 | 20 | - | - | 37 | 31 |
| | | Social | 62 | 59.6 | 6 | 100 | 4 | 80 | 4 | 100 | 76 | 63.8 |
| | | Others | 6 | 5.8 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 6 | 5 |
| | | Total | 104 | 100 | 6 | 100 | 5 | 100 | 4 | 100 | 119 | 100 |
| 6 | Experience | 1-10 years | 14 | 13.5 | - | - | - | - | 1 | 25 | 15 | 12.6 |
| | | 11-20 years | 42 | 40.4 | 1 | 16.6 | 1 | 20 | 2 | 50 | 46 | 38.6 |
| | | Above 20 years | 48 | 46.2 | 5 | 83.3 | 4 | 80 | 1 | 25 | 58 | 48.7 |
| | | Total | 104 | 100 | 6 | 100 | 5 | 100 | 4 | 100 | 119 | 100 |

With regard to the back ground information of respondents, item 1 of table 3 indicated that 58 (48.7%) are males and the remaining 61(51.2%) of them are females. Even though the numbers of females' staffs were greater than males, they are not equally participated in school leadership position. With respect to marital status, 105 (88.2%) of the respondents are married while 14

(11.4%) of them are unmarried. While, having children and family responsibility could have significant impact on their aspiration to become school leadership the table indicate 20(16.8%) have no children.

Regarding the qualification of the respondents, 7(5.8%), 67 (56.3%), and 45(37.8%) are qualified in certificate, diploma and degree respectively. From this we can see that majority of female teachers were graduated with diploma and first degree respectively. So, they do have the necessary skill in which they have appropriate educational level to participate in primary school 2nd cycle leadership according to standard set by (MOE, 2002 E.C).

As it can be seen in item of 5 of the table, 37(31. %), 76(63.8%) and 6 (5. %) of the respondents are graduated in natural science, social science and others (art and music) respectively. From this we can see that respondents were from different discipline which may have effect on their aspiration. Moreover, item 6 of table 3, indicate that 15(12.6%) 46(38.6%) and 58(48.7%) of the respondents have 1-10, 11-20 and >20) service years in their profession respectively. This reveals that the majority of the respondents were experienced who are expected to be active participants in all spheres of leadership positions. But not as expected still females are underrepresented.

4.2 The Extent Female Teachers Participation 2nd cycle Primary School

To assess extent female teachers participation in primary School 2nd Cycle Leadership the study raised questions of the number of females as both head and deputy head teachers, at what position of female participation was high in school leadership, the area where the female teachers numerous (staff or in leadership position) and the balance of female with male in school leadership position. Thus, the subsequent Table 4 with the qualitative data acquired discusses the results.

Table 4: The Extent of Female Teachers' Participation in School Leadership

| No | Items | SD | | DA | | UN | | AG | | SA | | M | SD | Independent t-test | | | | | |
|----|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|---|------|------|--------------------|----|------|------|---------|----------------|
| | | Fr | % | Fr | % | Fr | % | Fr | % | fr | % | | | Sex | N | M | SD | t-value | Sig.(2 tailed) |
| 1 | Females are still the minority as both head and deputy head teachers | - | - | - | - | 31 | 30 | 73 | 70 | | | 3.3 | .460 | M | 51 | 3.3 | .476 | .766 | .446 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.26 | .445 | | |
| 2 | Females participation decreases at higher leadership position than lower position(club heads, department and unit leader) | - | - | - | - | 32 | 31 | 72 | 69 | - | - | 3.66 | .464 | M | 51 | 3.73 | .451 | .714 | .477 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.66 | .478 | | |
| 3 | High number of female staffs in teaching area than leadership position | - | - | - | - | 67 | 64 | 37 | 36 | - | - | 3.36 | .481 | M | 51 | 3.27 | .451 | - 1.705 | .091 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.43 | .445 | | |
| 4 | Both male and female teachers equally participate in school leadership position | 30 | 29 | 64 | 62 | 10 | 10 | - | - | - | - | 1.81 | .592 | M | 51 | 1.78 | .557 | -393 | .695 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 1.83 | .612 | | |

SD= Strongly Disagree, DA= Disagree, UN= Undecided, AG= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree

1-2= Below Average, 3= Average, 4- 5= Above Average

As indicated in item 1 of table 4, the majority 73 (70%) of respondent teachers responded agree. This reveals that the participation of females in school leadership was still minorities which coincide with of the finding of (Hart, 1995) because of traditional stereotypes cast women and minorities as social incongruent as a leader

The mean score of responses was ($M=3.3$) with standard deviation of ($SD=0.460$), which are in the scope of above average level.

To see whether there was significant difference or not between two groups of respondents the independent sample t-test was computed. The t-test result was greater than the critical t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance. The t-test result was ($t=.766$, $p=.444$). This reveals that there is no significant difference between the two groups of respondents..

As item 2 of table 4, 72(69%) of the respondents replied that females participation decreases at higher leadership position than lower (unit leader, department heads and club heads in the school). The mean score of responses was ($M=3.66$) and with standard deviation of ($SD=.464$).

The t-test value of this item also indicated at 0.05 level of significance and the t-test result was ($t=.714$, $p=.477$). This reveals that there is no significant difference between the two groups of respondents.

Similarly, the data obtained by document analysis from the 2nd cycle primary school of the town revealed that the last four years teachers' involvements in various leadership was increasing from higher leadership position towards lower leadership position.

Regarding this, the majority of the interviewee responded as:

“.....the involvement of females in school leadership is much better in lower level of leadership, like leading and coordinating different clubs and department than acting in higher level of school leadership as that of vice and principal position”.

In item 3 of table 4, respondents were asked to respond whether high number of female staffs in teaching area than leadership position. Consequently, majority 67(64%) of the respondents agreed that high number of female staffs in teaching area than leadership position. The mean score of responses was ($M=3.36$) with standard deviation of ($SD=0.481$).

As t-test value of item calculated the t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance and the t-test result was ($t = -1.705$, $p = .091$). This reveals that there is no significant difference between the two groups of respondents

With respect to item 4 of table 4, 64 (62%) of the respondents were disagreed in the question they requested to answer whether both females and males equally participated in school leadership. This means, both females and males do not equally participate in school leadership. Thus, the mean value of the item result is ($M = 1.81$) with standard deviation ($SD = 0.592$). To see whether there was significant difference or not between two groups of respondents the independent sample t-test was computed. The t-test result was greater than the critical t-value at $\alpha = 0.05$ level of significance and the t-test result was ($t = -.393$, $p = .695$).

4.3 Major Organizational and Personal Factors that Affect Female Teacher's Participation in School Leadership

The results presented in subsequent table helps to understand the major organizational and personal factors that affect female teacher's participation in primary School 2nd^{Cycle} Leadership in raising the questions related to organizational and personal factors that hinders female teachers participation in school leadership.

Table 5: Organizational Factors that Affect Female Teacher's Participation in School Leadership

| No | Items | SD | | DA | | UN | | AG | | SA | | M | SD | Independent t-test | | | | | |
|----|--|----|------|----|------|----|-----|----|-----|----|---|------|------|--------------------|----|------|------|---------|-------------------|
| | | Fr | % | Fr | % | Fr | % | Fr | % | Fr | % | | | sex | N | M | SD | t-value | Sig.(2 tailed) |
| | Organization Related Factors | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | Job recruitment and hiring practice do not attract female candidates for leadership | - | - | - | - | 82 | 79 | 20 | 19 | 2 | 2 | 3.22 | .467 | M | 51 | 3.2 | .461 | -322 | .748* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.25 | .477 | | |
| 2 | Assigning tasks and delegation authority in school do not encourage female teachers to come to school leadership | 49 | 47 | 52 | 50 | 3 | 3 | - | - | - | - | 1.56 | .554 | M | 51 | 3.51 | .703 | .679 | .499* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.42 | .719 | | |
| 3 | Lack of special support to females to win competition for leadership position in the education system of the town | - | - | 3 | 3 | 75 | 72 | 26 | 25 | - | - | 3.05 | .482 | M | 51 | 3.18 | .478 | -927 | .356* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.26 | .486 | | |
| 4 | Higher officials make gender bias while selecting school leader | - | - | 2 | 2 | 80 | 77 | 21 | 20 | - | - | 3.2 | .470 | M | 51 | 3.20 | .448 | -124 | .902* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.21 | .495 | | |
| 5 | Institutions/ schools/leadership style attract females to participate in school leadership | - | - | 1 | 1 | 97 | 93 | 6 | 6 | - | - | 3.05 | .256 | M | 51 | 3.02 | .244 | -1.113 | .268* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.08 | .267 | | |
| 6 | The provision made in the document and guide lines do not give priority for females to attend leader ship training in their town | 47 | 45.2 | 43 | 41.3 | 6 | 5.8 | 8 | 7.7 | - | - | 3.79 | .692 | M | 51 | 3.80 | .775 | .222 | .824* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.78 | .609 | | |

The result of the item 1 in the above table show that the majority 82 (79%) of respondents (teachers) agreed with job recruitment and hiring practice do not attract female candidates for leadership. The mean value of this item is ($M=3.22$) and its standard deviation is ($SD=0.467$). Therefore, from the above finding it can be calculated job recruitment and hiring practice do not attract female candidates for leadership. The t-test result of this item was ($t=-322$ $p=.748$) which above significance level.

Supporting this, Roos and Reskin, (1984) Job recruitment and hiring practices used by employers often result in females being placed in jobs that have short or nonexistent job ladders. This is an important barrier limiting females' participation beyond low-paying jobs.

In item 2 respondents were requested to reply to the question that the assigning of tasks and delegating authority in school do not encourages female teachers to come to school leadership. Accordingly, 52 (50%) of respondents disagreed of assigning tasks and delegation authority in school do not encourages female teachers to come to school leadership. However, 3(3%) of respondents replied undecided. The mean score and standard deviation are ($M=1.56$) and ($SD=0.554$) respectively. This shows that the school system in tasks and delegation authority empower female teachers to come to school leadership.

The t-test result was ($t=679$, $p=.499$) which revealed that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers.

As the response given to item 3 of the table, 75(72%) of respondents replied that in the education system of the town, there was lack of special support to females to win competition for leadership position. But, only 3 (3%) responded disagree to the question in saying that there is special support. The mean score is 3.05 with standard deviation of 0.482, which is in the range of average level. The t-test result was ($t=-927$, $p=.356$) which revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers.

Item 4 of table 6, related with gender bias during selecting school leader. In this regard, the majority 80(77%) of respondents replied as higher officials make gender bias during selecting school leader. The mean score and standard deviation of this item were ($M= 3.2$) and (0.256). This shows that selection of female teachers for school leadership was bias. This finding was cognizant to the finding of (Hart, 1995) because of traditional stereotypes cast women and minorities as social incongruent as a leader

The calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance. The t-test result was ($t=-124$, $p=.902$). The result revealed that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers.

The concern of item 5 of table 5 was whether schools leadership style attracts females or not. As per this, 97(93%) of the respondents said that schools leadership style attract females to participate in school leadership and 1(1%) of them supported as school leadership style was attracted female teachers. The mean score for this item is 3.05 with standard deviation of ($SD=0.256$), this shows that school leadership style attract female teachers to participate in school leadership.

The t-test value of item indicate $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance and the t-test result was ($t=1.113$, $p=.268$) which reveals as there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers.

In item 6 of the table, the respondents were asked to whether the document and guide lines do not give priority for female teachers to attend leader ship training in their town. Thus, the majority, 47(45.2%) disagreed that document and guide lines do not give priority for females teachers. But, 8(8%) of the respondents were agreed. The mean score of the responses was ($M=3.79$) with standard deviation of ($SD=.692$). From this, it is easy to suggest that document and guide lines in the school needs to be amend in order to give priority for females to attend leader ship training in the town.

The calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance. The t-test result was ($t=222$, $p=.824$). The result revealed that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers.

Concerning this, literature in the area substantiate that organizational structure especially job assignment are designed to prevent females from ascending to the top administrative level. Job assignment is considered to be the primary condition for career participation of females to participate to the leadership position in school as organization. Organizational structure” steer way” females’ potential for upward mobility by confining them to work roles that are considered to be “Females occupation”. To this end, the quickest way to the top of management level is placement in functional areas or crucial job assignment that leads to the accomplishment of critical organizational tasks Bergmann (1986:88). Also, according to Enomoto (2000:377), since

men have traditionally dominated leadership position in all spheres, it follows that male gendered. In this way, organization research and theory became male-biased oriented to male

ways of knowing (Calas and Smircich, as cited in Holy and Miskel, 1996:20).

| | Personal Factors | Related | SD | | DA | | UN | | AG | | SA | | M | SD | Independent t-test | | | | | |
|----|--|---------|----|---|----|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|------|------|--------------------|----|------|------|---------|---------------|
| | | | fr | % | Fr | % | fr | % | fr | % | Fr | % | | | Sex | N | M | SD | t-value | Sig(2 tailed) |
| 7 | Females are reluctant to accept responsibility | | - | - | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 52 | 50 | 50 | 48 | 4.45 | .573 | M | 51 | 3.39 | .603 | -1.045 | .299* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 4.51 | .541 | | |
| 8 | Females can make strong in decision and committed to the organization and their career | | - | - | - | - | 15 | 14 | 82 | 79 | 7 | 7 | 3.92 | .456 | M | 51 | 3.96 | .488 | .827 | .410* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.89 | .423 | | |
| 9 | Females have lack of confidence in their capabilities, qualification and experience | | - | - | - | - | 8 | 30 | 58 | 56 | 58 | 56 | 4.48 | .638 | M | 51 | 4.59 | .606 | 1.700 | .092* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 4.38 | .657 | | |
| 10 | Females are better leader than males | | - | - | - | - | 10 | 86 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3.92 | .332 | M | 51 | 3.90 | .361 | -634 | .528* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.94 | .305 | | |
| 11 | Females have less involvement in socio-economic development than males | | - | - | 1 | 1 | 63 | 39 | 40 | 39 | - | - | 3.38 | .506 | M | 51 | 3.31 | .469 | -1.214 | .228* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.43 | .537 | | |
| 12 | Females have necessary skills to discipline students, supervise other adults and criticizes other constructively in their work place | | - | - | 1 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 60 | 58 | 39 | 38 | 4.32 | .596 | M | 51 | 4.41 | .497 | 1.59 | .113* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 4.23 | .669 | | |
| 13 | Females have capability to lead primary school | | - | - | - | - | 1 | 1 | 31 | 30 | 72 | 69 | 4.68 | .488 | M | 51 | 4.69 | .469 | .073 | .942* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 4.68 | .510 | | |

Key: *P>0.05

SD= Strongly Disagree, DA= Disagree, UN= Undecided, AG= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree

1-2= Below Average, 3= Average, 4- 5= Above Average

In responding to item 7 of table 5, 52(50%) of the respondents agreed that females are reluctant to accept responsibility. The calculated mean score is ($M= 4.45$) with standard deviation of ($SD= 0.573$) and the t-test result was ($t=-1.045$, $p=.299$) which revealed as there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers in their response.

Regarding this, Holtkanm (2002) and Gidesn (2005) suggests that women have been reluctant to pursue educational administration because of the fact that women have been playing traditional role of home makers while men remaining a leader in every sphere of life. Similarly, the qualitative response from all respondents reflects similar views. However, the interviewee portray the reason why female teacher are reluctant to pursue school leadership is not because of the problem of lack of self-confidence but their too much home responsibility.

In addition, the interviewee said the following about women reluctance to accept school leadership:

" ...most women do not want to apply for the posts saying perhaps women give priority to their family than school leadership because it needs to much time which is a burden for women to balance home responsibility and school leadership, they are not eager to take the posts because of the traditional beliefs which gives home responsibility for women..."

In addition, the interviewee said;

" ...the patriarchal society views men to be superior to women in terms of leadership. Members of the society feel that men make better leaders than women. Therefore, where a leader is to be elected, people will prefer electing a man rather than a woman."

Moreover, the interviewee also expressed;

" ...from an early age, daughters are groomed for their marriage roles of wife, mother and food provider ... and they are conditioned from an early age to believe that a woman is inferior to a man and that her place is in the home and the cultural belief that men is the better leader make them reluctant".

Item 8 of table 5, the respondents were requested to reply how females can make strong decision and committed to the organization and their career. With regard to this, majority 82(79%) of the respondents showed that females can't make strong decision and not committed to the

organization. The mean score and standard deviation were ($M=3.92$) and ($SD=0.456$) respectively. The calculated t-value was at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance. The t-test result was ($t=.827$, $p=.410$).

While responding to item 9 of the table, 58 (56%) of the respondents were replied that females have lack of confidence in their capabilities, qualification and experience. The mean score and standard deviation of this response were ($M=4.48$) and ($SD=0.638$) respectively. This implies that the confidence of females in their capabilities, qualification and experience was below average. The calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance and the result was ($t=1.700$, $p=.092$) which show as there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers.

This finding is similar with Brown (2003) and Oplatka (2006) study, which describe that women do not apply to be principals, even when they are as well qualified as the male applicants, at least in part, because they have negative self-perceptions and lack confidence in their capabilities, qualifications and experience. Moreover, as the result of their socialization process and sex role stereotyping, majority of women lack self- confidence to be school leader (Pig ford & Tonnson, 1993:11).

In their reaction to item 10 of the table, majority 92(86%) of the respondents were agreed that females are better leader than males. The mean score this item was ($M=3.92$) with its standard deviation ($SD=0.332$), which are in the range of above average of effectiveness. The calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance. The t-test result was ($t=-.634$, $p=.528$) which reveals that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers.

Davidson & Burke, (2000) and Mattis, (1994) support this finding since their finding revealed that women managers were creates greater job satisfaction in organization and they have able to implement flexible working hours than men.

Moreover, supporting this finding, different literature have also described that women more than men concerned to seven leadership approach like, interactive leadership (Rosener, 1990), caring leadership (Grogan, 1998, 2000), relational leadership (Reagan and Brooks, 1995), power shared leadership (Brunner, 1999), learning focus leadership (Beck & Murphy, 1996), authentic, moral,

servant, or value- added leadership (Sergiovanni, 1991,1992,1994, and synergistic leadership (Irby et al., 2002).

With regarding to item 11 of table 5, 63 (61%) of respondents were agreed that females have less involvement in socio-economic development than males. The mean score value of this item is (M=3.38) and its standard deviation (SD=0.506). The t-test value of the item also indicated at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance and result was ($t=-1.214$, $p=.228$) which tell us as there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers.

With substantiating this MOWA, (2006), stated that both culture and religion played major roles in limiting the positive roles that women could have played. They have been oppressed in many respects in their capacity as being women and lack of involvement in the male dominated socio-economic infrastructures and as member of oppressed Class.

With regard to the finding of item 12 of table 5, 60(58%) of the respondents at the value of (M=4.32) with its standard deviation (SD=0.596), agreed that females have necessary skills to discipline students, supervise other adults and criticizes other constructively in their work place. The calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance. The t-test result was ($t=1.59$, $p=.113$). The result revealed that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers.

This finding was supported by findings of Gross and Trask (1976) which suggests that women have capabilities and qualities of leadership that exhibit better technical skill in decision making and problem solving behaviors where by administrators, supervisors and teachers preferred their technical skill for leadership.

In item 13 of table 5, 72(69%) of the respondents were agreed that females have capability to lead primary school. The mean score value of the item (M= 4.68) and its standard deviation (SD=0.488). As well the t-test value of the item is at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance and the t-test result was ($t=.073$, $p=.942$). This implies that female teachers have capability to lead primary school if they hold position.

4.4 The Extent Female Teachers Aspiration to Participate in School Leadership Position

Since the ultimate objective this study was to assess the participation of females in school leadership it is important to measure extent female teachers' aspiration to participate in school leadership position. In order to analyze this, the data acquired on the expectation of officials concerning the capacity of female leaders, the interest and motivation of females to be a leader, the assumption of female to be successful leader and self confidence of females in their leadership ability were presented and discussed in the table below.

Table 6: Aspiration of female teachers to participate in school leadership

| No | Items | SD | | DA | | UN | | AG | | SA | | M | SD | Independent t-test | | | | | |
|----|--|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|---|------|------|--------------------|----|------|------|---------|----------------|
| | | Fr | % | Fr | % | Fr | % | Fr | % | Fr | % | | | Sex | N | M | SD | t-value | Sig.(2 tailed) |
| 1 | Females have an interest and motivation to apply for school leadership | 27 | 26 | 74 | 71 | 3 | 3 | - | - | - | - | 1.77 | .487 | M | 51 | 1.78 | .503 | .308 | .759* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 1.75 | .477 | | |
| 2 | Men are continue to be rated higher than women on most of the qualities associated with leadership | - | - | - | - | 71 | 68 | 32 | 31 | 1 | 1 | 3.33 | .492 | M | 51 | 3.24 | .428 | -1.888 | .062* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.42 | .535 | | |
| 3 | Females assume that they will not be successful in leading school | - | - | 6 | 6 | 72 | 69 | 26 | 25 | - | - | 3.19 | .523 | M | 51 | 3.18 | .555 | -302 | .764* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.21 | .495 | | |
| 4 | Both female and males leader do not want to work under females | - | - | - | - | 67 | 64 | 37 | 36 | - | - | 3.66 | .481 | M | 51 | 3.33 | .476 | -465 | .643* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.38 | .489 | | |
| 5 | Females do not have plan and set their promotion goals to be school leader | - | - | - | - | 58 | 56 | 46 | 42 | - | - | 3.44 | .499 | M | 51 | 3.33 | .476 | -2.228 | .028* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 3.38 | .503 | | |
| 6 | Females are dependent on males, passive emotional, uncertain of themselves and weak leader | 29 | 28 | 65 | 63 | 10 | 10 | - | - | - | - | 1.82 | .587 | M | 51 | 1.71 | .610 | -1.923 | .057* |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | F | 53 | 1.92 | .549 | | |

Note: *P>0.05

Key: A= Disagree, UN= Undecided, AG= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree

1-2=Minimum, 3=Average, 4-5=Maximum

The above table depicts that to what extent female teachers aspire in school leadership. Thus, as it can be seen in table 6, the major finding of the study was centered up on the items where by the majority of the respondents showed their feelings with their agreement and disagreement in school leadership.

In item 1 of table 6, the majority 74(71%) of the respondents were disagreed on females have an interest and motivation to apply for school leadership, while, 3(3%) of them agreed on the issue. The mean value of the responses was found to be ($M=1.77$) with a standard deviation of ($M=0.487$), which indicate below average level of effectiveness.

Since the calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level significance, the t-test result was ($t=.308$, $p=.759$). The result revealed that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers.

This finding is similar with that observed by Brown (2003) and Oplatka (2006) which portray as women do not apply to be principals, even when they are as well qualified as the male applicants, at least in part, because they have negative self-perceptions and lack confidence in their qualifications and experience.

Supporting this, most of the interviewed women state as women teachers does not apply for managerial posts in the assumption that their applications will not be considered positively, since system favors men.

Moreover, they assume that the system keeps women at the margin of school leadership and some of the respondents also indicated that not all women teachers were interested to take up leadership position, most women feels comfortable in the lower ranks.

The respondent result in item 2 of the table indicate that the majority 71 (68%) of the respondents replied as men are consistently to be rated higher than women on most of the qualities associated with leadership. The mean score of these responses is ($M=3.33$) with a standard deviation ($SD=0.492$). Since the calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance, the t-test result was ($t=-1.888$, $p=.062$). This result revealed that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female respondents.

In item 3 of table 6, the majority 72 (69%) of the respondents confirmed that females assume that they will not be successful in leading school. However, 6 (6%) of the respondents were disagreed on the issue. The mean score of the teachers' responses is ($M=3.19$) with a standard deviation of ($SD=0.523$) and the calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level significance, the t-test result was ($t=-302, p=.764$). The result revealed that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers response.

Concerning this issue Jordan et al. (1999:234) state that the problem of females to seek leadership position is fear of success, which jeopardizes the women personal lives. Working with high achievement women and men, she worries the anticipation of negative consequence, for example, social rejection, disapproval and loss of femininity.

On item 4 of the table, respondents were requested to give their opinion whether or not they believe that both female and male leaders do not want to work under females. Accordingly, 67(64%) of the respondents showed their agreement as they did not to work under female leaders. The mean score of this item is ($M=3.66$) with a standard deviation of ($SD=0.481$) which indicate that female and male teachers were not willing under female leadership position in school.

As t-test value indicated that, since the calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance, the t-test result was ($t=-465, p=.643$). The result revealed that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female respondents.

Regarding item 5 of table 6, majority 58 (56%) of the respondents agreed with females do not have plan and set goals to be school leaders. The mean score of the item is ($M=3.44$) with a standard deviation of ($SD=0.499$) and the t-test result was ($t=-2.228, p=.028$). The result revealed that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers in the idea of females were not anticipated to lead school.

Substantiating this issue Gupton & slick, (1996) state as many women have not carefully planned their ascent to the top management. Moreover, supporting this finding, different literature have also described that there is a strong correlation between woman's lack of career advancement and their lower career goals. They pursue their options in unplanned manner, as simply opportunities emerged (Addisu, 2001:32),

In their reaction to item 6 of table, majority 65 (63%) of the respondents disagreed with females are dependent on males, passive emotional, uncertain of themselves and weak leader, while, 10 (10%) of them showed their agreement on the issue. The mean score of this item is ($M=1.82$) with standard deviation of ($SD=0.587$). This reveals that, females are more independent, active, and certain about them and are strong leader if they come to leadership position.

As t-test value indicated that, since the calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance, the t-test result was ($t=-1.923$, $p=.057$). The result revealed that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female respondents.

4.5 Strategies to promote female teachers to participate in school leadership

The results presented in subsequent table helps to understand the strategies that help to promote female teachers to participate in school leadership in raising the questions about guide lines that school use for leader selection, assertive training program for female and special material and moral support offered for females.

Table 7: Strategies in place to promote female teachers to participate in school leadership

| No | Strategies in place | No | Yes | | No | |
|----|---|-----|-----|----|----|----|
| 1 | The school recruitment guide lines had favors affirmative action for female applicants during recruitment time | 104 | N | 73 | f | 31 |
| | | | % | 70 | % | 30 |
| 2 | The school provide capacity building training to promote female teachers participation in primary school leadership | 104 | n | 77 | f | 27 |
| | | | % | 74 | % | 26 |
| 3 | Institutions/schools/ involves the gender unit or women's office representatives in the committee established for the recruitment, training and development of individual | 104 | N | 76 | f | 28 |
| | | | % | 73 | % | 27 |
| 4 | Giving a chance of separate quota to compute among for female themselves and with an additional chance to compute with the male counterpart competitors | 104 | N | 69 | f | 35 |
| | | | % | 66 | % | 34 |
| 5 | Allocation of financial resources for female capacity building training to promote their participation to primary school leadership | 104 | N | 33 | f | 71 |
| | | | % | 32 | % | 68 |

The item 1 of this table shows that whether or not institutions have placed those mechanisms like affirmative action's that enhance female teacher participation in school leadership. In this regard the majority 73(70%) of the respondents replied that their institution had recruitment guidelines that favors women affirmative action during recruitment time.

With regard to item 2, of table 7, 77(74%) of the respondents replied that there is presence of capacity building (training) programs that are designed as part of initiative to promote female teachers' to leadership position in the education system. The result of this finding indicates that school has attractive mechanisms that are in placed to promote the participation of female teachers in school leadership.

In item 3 of table 7, 76 (73%) of the respondents reported the presence of gender unit and women's office representatives among school committee established for the recruitment,

training and development of individuals in school to enhance the participation of female teachers' in school leadership.

In their reaction to item 4 of table, 69(66%) of the respondents replied the presence of giving a chance of separate quota for females to compute among themselves and with an additional chance to compute with the male competitors to promote the participation of female teachers' in school leadership.

On the other hand, as the respondent result of item 5 of the table indicate the majority 71 (68%) of them respond that their institutions have no allocation of financial resources for female capacity building training to promote their participation to school.

However, Education and training policy (ETP: 1994) states that the financial support given for women as a mechanism or strategy to build their capacity through training. Particularly, article (3.9.5:32) stated that the government will give financial support to raise the participation of women in Education and training policy is very general with promising statement as the strategy. The emphasis given by Ethiopian education and Training Policy (1994) to support women financially have its own implication. As Shake shaft (1985) stated women, more than men, referred to lack of finances as a reason for being un able to continue administrative training. It can be noted that women have tended to sacrifice financially for their families and, therefore, cut short their educational opportunities.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This final chapter deals with the summary, conclusion drawn from the major findings and recommendations made based on the findings.

5.1 Summary

The purpose of this study was to assess major factors that affect female teachers' participation in primary school leadership. To this end, the study basic questions addressing the issues related to extent of female teachers' participation in primary school leadership, major organizational and personal factors affect female teachers' participation in school leadership, the extent of female teachers' aspiration to participate in school leadership and strategies in place to promote female teachers' participation were raised.

To seek answers to these questions and to achieve the study objective descriptive survey method was used. With the intention to address the questions the researcher reviewed relevant literature and prepared questionnaires and interview guides for the participants of the study. Accordingly, open and close ended questionnaires were prepared for teachers. These questionnaires were commented by the research advisors and colleagues and pilot tested to check validity and reliability. And after the necessary correction and modifications, the questionnaires were duplicated and distributed to 104 teachers. Besides, to gather more detailed information and to substantiate the information acquired through questionnaire, interview was conducted with selected school principals, Jimma town education officials and women and children affairs.

Moreover, document analysis was made. The data obtained were analyzed with the help of SPSS. Such statistical tool as percentage and frequency, mean score, standard deviation and independent T-test were used to analyses the quantitative data where as descriptive analysis was used for the qualitative part.

Based on the analysis of the data, the study came up with the following major findings:

- As analysis in the background information disclosed the number of females was greater than males in teaching staff. But this number was not proportionate with the leadership position of females.

- Since having children and family responsibility could have significant impact on their aspiration to become school leadership the result indicates as majority 83% of females had children.
- The finding of the study showed that the majority 67 (56.3%) of female teachers were graduated with diploma. Thus, they do have the appropriate educational level to participate in primary school 2nd cycle leadership as set by (MOE, 2002 E.C).
- The finding of the study indicates that females participation decreases at higher leadership position than lower position (club heads, department heads and unit leader) at mean value of (M= 3.66) and (SD=0.464). The t-test result showed ($t=.714$, $p=.477$). This reveals that there was no statistically a significant difference between the two groups of respondents.
- With regard to organizational and personal factors, the major finding of the study revealed that, females have lack of confidence in school leadership, (M=4.48) and (SD=0.638). The t-test result showed ($t=.1700$, $p=0.092$). Females have necessary skills to discipline students, supervise other adults and criticizes other constructively in their work place (M=4.32) and (SD=0.598). The t-test result showed ($t=1.59$, $p=0.113$). Females are reluctant to accept responsibility (M=4.45) and (SD=0.573). The t-test result showed ($t=-1.045$, $p=0.299$). Job recruitment and hiring practice do not attract female candidates for leadership (M= 3.22) and (SD=0.467). The t-test result showed ($t=-322$, $p=0.748$).

Concerning to teachers' aspiration, the major finding revealed that the major factors that stand along the way to female teachers to pursue in school leadership .Both female and males do not want to work under females (M=3.66) and (SD=0.439), females do not have plan and set their promotion goals to be school leader (M=3.44) and 0.499. The t-test result showed ($t=-465$, $p=.643$). Females do not have plan and set their promotion goals to be school leader (M=3.44) and (SD=0.499). The t-test result showed ($t=-2.228$, $p=0.028$).

On the other hand, the factor that hinder female teachers participation in school leadership were the improper implementation of the provision of strategies which in turn was not successful in bringing more female teachers' in school leadership. This could be manifested by the strategies to do so. Thus, the ineffectiveness of recruitment guide line to make clear that among other female applicants are guaranteed to affirmative action and be given the priority for recruitment (55.6%), and the in effectiveness of institution or schools to involve the gender unit established for the recruitment, training and deployment of individual for leaders

5.2 Conclusions

From the finding it is possible to conclude that female teachers' participation tend to be relatively more successful in holding lower leadership position than at the top leadership positions. The major factors that affect female teachers participation in public primary school 2nd cycle leadership of Jimma Town were manifested in organizational and personal factors as job recruitment and hiring practice do not attract females, female teachers are minority as both head and vice head teachers, females are reluctant to accept responsibility of school leadership and females have lack of confidence in their capabilities, qualification and experience, female have less involvement in socio economic development than males.

Aspiration related the breeding grounds for the very existence and determination, females do not have plan and set their promotion goals to be school leader, both female and males do not want to work under female leader, as recognized as highly generalized and used as pre texts not to encourage female teachers to be educational leader.

At the implementation level, the target of the document and guidelines appear to be less critically understood or narrowly interpreted by implementers; therefore, some female applicants are failed the competition for leadership posts because the guidelines¹ made for them were ignored by the recruitment committee.

5.3. Recommendation

Based on the major findings of the study and conclusions drawn, the following recommendations are forwarded:

- Different organizational officials (School Principals, Town Education Officials and Women and Children affairs) need to give greater recognition for female teachers and place them in functional areas or job assignment that leads to accomplishment critical school tasks and strengthen them to hold higher level of position.
- Educational leaders (School Principals, Town Education Officials and Women and Children affairs) need to ensure that all applicable e guide lines are fully implemented and that they appoint and support coordinators as one of their strategies to institutionalized and monitor gender fairness in their schools.
- Societies need to accept potential females' contributions in leadership activities to attain developmental goals of the country and they need to encourage rather than discourage them.

- Female teachers are needed to realize their innate abilities and teach their colleagues to change community, parents and student negative attitude towards them through discussion in different public stages.
- Deliberate efforts need to be made by concerned bodies (Women and Children affairs) to increase societal awareness on the importance of females' participation in every leadership position particularly in schools.
- At school level, need to assign female teachers' as unit leaders, department heads and co-curricular coordinators. So that they can get opportunity to develop managerial and decision making skills in order to climb a ladder of better position in the school
- Some kind of quota system need to be employed for females during selection of teachers' for school principal trainings. Therefore, it is important to widen opportunity for females to increase their participation in school leadership to enable them competence for school leadership.
- Women serving in key leadership roles need to talk about and think creatively with other women about ways to successfully balance family responsibilities and job demands (Grogan, 2005).
- Women and men in position of power in educational systems need to deliberately mentor more women.
- Institutional heads (School principals, Town Education Officials and Women and Children) could cooperatively work to involve gender unit or office in the committee or team established for the recruitment training, and development of female teachers' for school leadership position.
- Males need to accept potential females' contributions in leadership activities to attain developmental goals of the country. In addition, they need to encourage rather than discouraging them.
- Financial resources as stated in policy manual (ETP: 1994) and guide line could be translated in to practices for building the capacity female teachers to pursue school leadership.
- Women in position of leadership need to communicate the feeling of effectiveness they derive from their work and might motivate other women to seek position of leadership, particularly at the level of the school principal and counter perceptions of stress related to school leadership that discourage those who have potential to apply to school principal.

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Appendix -A
Jimma University
Institute of Education and Professional development Studies
Department of Educational Planning and Management

Questionnaire to be filled by teachers

General Direction

The ultimate purpose of this study is to assess the major factors that affect female teacher's participation in primary school 2nd cycle leadership in Jimma Administrative Town. The information collected through this questionnaire will be used purely for academic purpose. Your response will be kept confidential and you are kindly requested to complete the questionnaire carefully.

Please, read the instruction and each item in the questionnaire carefully before you give your response. If you want to change any of your response, please make sure that you have cancelled the undesired ones.

N.B

-No need to write your name

-There is no need of consulting other to fill the questionnaires.

Thank You Very much for your patience and dedication to respond to the entire question

PART-I-Background Information of the Respondents

Please, put a mark (✓) in your choice among the following alternatives with respect to background information on the space provided in the box for each item below.

1. Sex: Male ☐ Female ☐
2. Marital Status: Married ☐ Unmarried ☐
3. No of Children: No child ☐ 1-3 Children ☐ above3 Children ☐
4. Qualification: Certificate ☐ Diploma ☐ Degree ☐ others ☐
5. Field of Study: Natural Science ☐ Social Science ☐ others ☐
6. Experience: ☐ 1-10 years ☐ 11-20 years ☐ above 21 years ☐

Thank You for your Cooperation

PART-II Please put a mark (✓) to indicate the possible answer for the following given alternatives that represent closed ended question regarding to the extent of female teachers' participation in primary school 2nd cycle leadership position.

Key: 1- Strongly Disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Undecided, 4-Agree, 5- Strongly Agree

| No | Items | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|-----------|---|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 1 | Leadership is more appropriate to male than females | | | | | |
| 2 | Females participation decreases at higher leadership position than lower position(club heads, department and unit leader) | | | | | |
| 3 | high number of female staffs in teaching area than leadership position | | | | | |
| 4 | Both male and female teachers equally participate in school leadership position | | | | | |

PART-III Please put a mark (✓) to indicate the possible answer for the following given alternatives that represent closed ended question regarding to organizational and personal related factors for female teachers' participation in primary school 2nd cycle leadership areas.

Key: 1- Strongly Disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Undecided, 4-Agree, 5- Strongly Agree

| No | Items | Rating scale | | | | |
|----|--|--------------|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | 1.Organizational Related Factors | | | | | |
| 1 | Job recruitment and hiring practice do not attract female candidates for leadership | | | | | |
| 2 | Assigning tasks and delegation of authority in school do not encourage female teachers to come to leadership position | | | | | |
| 3 | Lack of special support to females to win competition for leadership positions in the education system of the town | | | | | |
| 4 | Higher officials make gender bias while selecting school leaders | | | | | |
| 5 | Institutions/Schools/ leadership style attract females to participate in primary school leadership | | | | | |
| 6 | The provisions made in the document and guide lines do not give priority for females to attend leadership training in the town | | | | | |
| | 2.Personal Related Factors | | | | | |
| 7 | Females are reluctant to accept responsibility | | | | | |
| 8 | Females can make strong decision and be committed to the organization and their careers | | | | | |
| 9 | Females have lack of confidence in their capabilities, qualification and experience | | | | | |
| 10 | Females are better leaders than men | | | | | |
| 11 | Females have less involvement in socio- economic development than males | | | | | |
| 12 | Females have necessary skill to discipline student, supervise other adults and criticize constructively in primary school | | | | | |
| 13 | Females have capability to lead primary school | | | | | |

PART-IV- Please put a mark (√) to indicate the degree to what extent you agree on the following question regarding to related factors that affect female teachers' aspiration to participate in primary school 2nd cycle leadership areas.

Key: 1- Strongly Disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Undecided, 4-Agree, 5- Strongly Agree

| NO | Items | Rating scale | | | | |
|----|---|--------------|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1 | Females have an interest and motivation to apply for school leadership | | | | | |
| 2 | Men continue to be rated higher than women on most of the qualities associated with leadership | | | | | |
| 3 | Females assume that they will not be successful in leading school if they are a leader | | | | | |
| 4 | Both females and males teachers do not want to work under females | | | | | |
| 5 | Females do not have plan and set their promotion goals to be school leader | | | | | |
| 6 | Females are dependent on male, passive, emotional, uncertain of themselves, sensitive and weak leader | | | | | |

PART-V Please put a mark (√) to indicate the possible answer for the following “Yes” or “No” alternatives question regarding to strategies are in place to promote female teachers’ participation to primary school 2nd cycle leadership areas.

| No | Item | Yes | No |
|----|--|-----|----|
| 1 | The provision of recruitment guidelines had made it clear that among others female applicants are guaranteed to affirmative action and be given the priority for recruitment | | |
| 2 | The school provides capacity building training to promote female teachers’ participation in primary school 2 nd cycle leadership | | |
| 3 | Institution /schools involves the gender unit or office in the committee or team established for the recruitment, training and deployment of individual or leadership | | |
| 4 | Giving a chance of separate quota to compute among for female themselves and with an additional chance to compute with the male counterpart competitors | | |
| 5 | Allocation of financial resources for female capacity building training to promote their participation to primary school 2 nd cycle leadership | | |

PART-V, Write your opinion /suggestion for the following open-ended questions.

1. What are the major factors that affect female teachers’ participation in primary school 2nd cycle leadership in your town?-----

2.What are other factors (If any) that affect female teachers’ participation in primary school 2nd cycle leadership in your town?-----

3. In order to enhance female teachers’ participation in primary school 2nd cycle leadership in your school, what measures should be taken by:-

Female teachers themselves:

Schools:

Town Education Office:

Societies:

APPENDIX -B

Jimma University

Institute of Education and Professional development Studies

Department of Educational Planning and Management

Interview Questions for School Principals, Town Education Officials and Women Affairs and Children Officials

Dear Participants,

The ultimate purpose of this study is to assess the major factors that affect female teachers' participation in primary school 2nd cycle leadership in Jimma town.

I am studying Master of Educational Leadership at the University of Jimma, Ethiopia, and this research is part of the degree and I hope that you will be willing to help me.

The information collected through this interview will be used purely for academic purpose. Your response will be kept confidential and you are kindly requested to give your response carefully.

1. Please share with me some of your background information in terms of marital and education status.
2. Please tell me how you got this position. What did you think when you decided to take this role?
3. What major organizational and personal factors you think that affect female teachers participation in primary school 2nd cycle leadership in your areas? Would specify in terms of hiring and recruiting practices that are exercised in your area?
4. It is said that women are reluctance to accept school leadership. What is your point of view about this perception?
5. Could you specify other factors that challenge female teachers' participation to school leadership position? Would you specify with respect to cultural believes and values?
6. It is said that leadership is more suitable for men in our culture. What is your point of view about this perception?
7. How do you evaluate female teachers' involvement in your school leadership? And have you seen any improvement?
8. What is your future plan in terms of your career advancement?
9. What mechanisms are in place to increase the participation of female teachers to school leadership?

Thank you very much!

Appendix- C

The past four year's quantitative data on teacher's involvement in school leadership by document analysis

| Year | Fr | Co-curricular activities and leadership | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------|-----|---|----|-----|-----------------|----|-----|-------------|----|-----|----------------|----|-----|-----------|----|-----|-------|-----|-----|
| | | Club head | | | Department head | | | Unit leader | | | Vice principal | | | principal | | | Total | | |
| 2002 | sex | M | F | T | M | F | T | M | F | T | M | F | T | M | F | T | M | F | T |
| | N | 31 | 20 | 51 | 22 | 14 | 36 | 24 | - | 24 | 16 | 2 | 18 | 5 | 1 | 6 | 98 | 37 | 135 |
| | % | 61 | 39 | 100 | 61 | 39 | 100 | 100 | - | 100 | 89 | 11 | 100 | 83 | 7 | 100 | 73 | 27 | 100 |
| 2003 | N | 47 | 23 | 70 | 20 | 16 | 36 | 21 | 3 | 24 | 16 | 2 | 18 | 5 | 1 | 6 | 109 | 45 | 154 |
| | % | 67 | 23 | 100 | 56 | 44 | 100 | 87 | 13 | 100 | 89 | 11 | 100 | 83 | 17 | 100 | 71 | 29 | 100 |
| 2004 | N | 38 | 25 | 63 | 18 | 18 | 36 | 18 | 6 | 24 | 12 | 6 | 18 | 4 | 2 | 6 | 94 | 57 | 151 |
| | % | 60 | 40 | 100 | 50 | 50 | 100 | 75 | 25 | 100 | 67 | 33 | 100 | 67 | 33 | 100 | 62 | 38 | 100 |
| 2005 | N | 33 | 27 | 60 | 16 | 20 | 36 | 18 | 6 | 24 | 12 | 6 | 18 | 3 | 3 | 6 | 82 | 65 | 147 |
| | % | 55 | 45 | 100 | 44 | 56 | 100 | 75 | 25 | 100 | 67 | 33 | 100 | 50 | 50 | 100 | 56 | 44 | 100 |
| Total | N | 149 | 95 | 244 | 76 | 68 | 144 | 81 | 15 | 96 | 56 | 16 | 72 | 17 | 7 | 24 | 383 | 204 | 587 |
| | % | 61 | 39 | 100 | 53 | 47 | 100 | 84 | 16 | 100 | 78 | 22 | 100 | 71 | 29 | 100 | 65 | 35 | 100 |

Source: study site and sample school document